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ART. I.—AMERICAN COMMERCE—ITS PROGRESS AND DEVELOPMENTS.

IN treating the great subject which is before us, and which will be continued through several issues of the REVIEW, we shall have occasion to draw freely upon the previous labors of ourself, as well as those of other statisticians, in the United States and Europe, analyzing, comparing, combining and presenting in a compact form, *and to the latest dates*, all the information which can be brought to bear upon or illustrate it.

The progress of America is the miracle of modern times, and nothing in the marvelous events of antiquity can form a counterpart to it. In their maturity, as in their infancy, the characteristics of her people are unchanged. The indomitable will, the stern endurance, the inflexible, hardy spirit of independence; the high daring, the lofty patriotism, the adventurous, unlimited enterprise; the genius,—resolute, active, intrepid; inexhaustible in resources, elastic in vigor and in freshness; buoyant ever, and hoping on and executing amid every trying scene, every danger and difficulty and disaster—triumphing everywhere and in all things!

The subject will be treated under the following great divisions, each of which shall constitute an article for the REVIEW:

- I. The Origin, Progress and Influences of Commerce.
- II. American Commerce in the Seventeenth Century.
- III. From the Opening of the Eighteenth Century to the Revolution.
- IV. Under the Articles of Confederation.
- V. Under the Constitution and until the War of 1812.
- VI. From the War of 1812 until the Civil War.
- VII. During the Civil War.
- VIII. Since the Close of the War—Grand Resumé.

The history of trade carries us back to the primeval history of man himself. Neither science nor art, nor any of the institutions of society have anything like the antiquity which of right pertains to this. The first want which was ever felt, the first appetite ever appeased, were but stimulants offered to new wants and appetites, whose gratification was denied to the unaided labors of the individual. We arrive at barter when we reach a point where the individual want calls into requisition efforts beyond what the individual can exert. When one man has not the thing which he desires, but has what its proprietor would equally value, there is at once laid a foundation for that system of *exchanges* which is among the first developments in the progress of trade.

Locke, it is, perhaps, who tells us that the hunter of the hills, whom the day's chase has crowned with no other than venison, would be loth to appropriate the whole of it to himself if he knew that his neighbor, whose fire flickered over the way, had a fine stock of grouse and pheasant preparing for the feast, and would be glad enough to smoke upon the embers with it a buck's quarter. If men were the same in those extreme ages as they are now, we are sure that these progenitors of Nimrod partook of each other's good cheer without knowing a word of any of the "laws which regulate exchanges." A shoulder of venison was good for at least a pair of canvas-back ducks. Plain Cudjo, on one of our Southern plantations, proved his connection with the genus homo, by taking half his weekly allowance of rice and bartering it away for a mess of Indian meal.

Anderson, in his History of Commerce, tells of a singular custom which prevailed with several nations of remote antiquity. Happening to have an overplus of any particular commodity or class of commodities, either of these nations would bear the excess to its border limits, and heap it up there. This surplus the neighbor nation drew upon as need be, substituting for the removed deposit so much of its own redundant produce of a different character, as it considered a fair equivalent. Such a system betrays great simplicity of manners and integrity of heart. We would not bespeak for it much favor in an age like ours, when greedy avarice, wily policy, and dollar-and-cent philosophy, take strong hold upon men's propensities. Anderson does not mention, if any frauds resulted from this pristine liberality.

The origin of commerce is a subject which by no means admits of much philosophizing, and we are rather amused than instructed by the wire-drawn theories with which the reader is almost sure to be treated by every writer who sets

himself up as instructor in this branch of history ; as if traffic of some description were not just as natural, and just as necessary, in the progress of mankind, as the use of language or the powers of locomotion. To explain the origin of the former appears to us as profitless at least as that of the latter.

Nearly six thousand years have passed away since man began to earn his subsistence by the sweat of his brow, and for half of this period we have no other record than that to be found in the Hebrew Bible. Profane history carries us to its extent when we reach the age of Homer, one thousand years before that of Jesus Christ. In Homer's time, navigation had become a system, and the Scian muse sings through his pages of the noble fleet which followed the fortunes of Agamemnon against the strong-walled Troy—

"What crowded armies, from what climes they bring,
Their names, their numbers, and their chiefs I sing."

ILIAD, II.

We must go farther back than this to find when trade became first a system.

We take up the Bible and turn to the lamentations and sorrows of Job. Whoever Job might have been, or whoever was the author of the book which chronicles his fortunes, it is certain that it is one of antiquity, equal, if not superior, to any other record in the world. Some have even given it an antediluvian origin. We have depicted in it at least the manners and customs of the patriarchal era. But the gold of Ophir and the Ethiopian topaz, as articles of commerce, would appear to have been familiar enough at that period to Arabian luxury.

Abraham counted out to Ephron for the burial-place of Macpelah (Gen. xxiii. 16), *silver, current with the merchant*, three thousand five hundred years ago. This evidences, then, a currency and commercial community. The children whom God has raised up to Abraham—the Hebrews, of all ages and countries, from that time to this—have proved themselves, beyond all compare, the most extraordinary nation of traders and traffickers that the annals of mankind have yet recorded. Blackstone fixes upon them the earliest use of that important instrument of commerce, the bill of exchange;* and English historians chronicle how these wealthy Hebrews, ere yet toleration became a virtue, were fleeced of their wares and moneys to satisfy the exorbitant and tyrannical demands of the sover-

* This method is said to have been brought into general use by the Jews and Lombards, when banished for their usury and other vices, in order to draw their effects more easily out of France and England into those countries into which they had chosen to reside.—2 *Black. Comm.*, 269.

eign purse. Old Isaac, of York, or some other "wealthy Tubal" of his tribe, it was, whose teeth were extracted, one a day, by England's king, till he had brought to light from his hidden treasures gold enough to buy him ransom from his hard usage. We are not told whether Isaac came from under the operation toothless, or how many molars and incisors he conceived his treasury to be worth. A modern traveler in Syria pays the same tribute to these descendants of Jacob. "From morning until night," says he, "and from night until morning, in the streets, in the houses, in the public places and promenades, everywhere and for ever, nothing is to be heard in Syria but merchandise and money, money and merchandise."

Abraham went down into Egypt. The Egyptians were a people *sui generis*. They abhorred foreigners on a deep-rooted principle; and these men of yore, of mummies, pyramids, and obelisks, were little qualified for any of the enterprises of trade. They did, however, under one or two sovereigns, exhibit a different characteristic, but the thing was forced. Their traders navigated for a short season the waters of the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. Long after this, when ancient Egypt belonged to history, and when Alexander the Great had subdued his countrymen and half the world beside, the conqueror fixed upon the site and built the city of Alexandria, midway between the Mediterranean and Indian seas, and commanding the commerce of either. Scarcely a city reached to so great a point of eminence for many centuries as Alexandria, in all the great departments of trade; and it had been to this day as it was in its early existence, but for the skill of Portuguese navigators doubling the "Cape of Storms," and opening a new and better avenue from Europe to the East Indies. From that day to this Alexandria is named "no more."

But we are not done with the Jews. We are to speak of that empire which, in all pomp and splendor and Eastern gorgeousness, David and Solomon raised up and maintained on the shores of ancient Judea. There was a compact, a commercial compact, between David and Hiram of Tyre, for the supply of timber and artisans necessary in embellishing the seat of Jewish empire. Solomon carried out the stipulations of his father, and extended the operations of the great co-partnership he had formed. The untold wealth and magnificence of Israel's sapient king stand out boldly in the annals of the nation. Tyrians and Hebrews together toiled on the shores of the Red Sea, at Eziongeber, in fitting out a fleet of ships for their sovereigns. It is certain that this fleet had commercial ends, and that it made a successful adventure somewhere, but where, no one exactly understands. Speculations have multi-

plied upon the subject. Beawes, in his "Lex Mercatoria," devotes many a page to the inquiry, and labors hard to show that the allied fleet visited the islands of the East Indies, and found, somewhere there, the Ophir and Tarshish, from which the Bible seems to tell us that such abundant gold and treasure were obtained. The periodical winds in these seas explain the success of navigation in the absence of compass or chronometer. Other places, too, these shipping doubtless visited on the coast of Asia and Ethiopia; but as most of this is conjecture, the reader can conjecture as well as ourselves.

Phœnicia, in all antiquity, is without example or parallel. More than twenty-two hundred years before Christ, the Phœnicians had founded the great commercial mart of Sidon. In Sidon were to be found the most splendid developments of arts, manufactures and commerce, before the Christian era. The Sidonians were an extraordinary people, who marked themselves strongly upon antiquity. Their merchant fleets opened the gates of the Mediterranean, and sailed away beyond the Pillars of Hercules, the *ne plus ultra* of the ancient world. They brought back to the vicinities of the Levant the ore which they obtained in Britain from the miners of Cornwall. With cargoes purchased in Arabia, Ethiopia and India, these fathers of navigation made their way to Elath, on the Arabian Sea; an overland transportation from Elath to Rhinocolura, and a re-shipment from that port, found their commodities at last safely landed at the quays of Tyre.

Let the rapt visions of Ezekiel describe for us Tyre, in all the gorgeousness of Eastern metaphor:

"O thou that art situate at the entry of the sea, which art a merchant of the people for many isles; thy borders are in the midst of the sea, thy builders have perfected thy beauty. Fine linen with brodered work from Egypt was that which thou spreadest forth to be thy sail; blue and purple from the isles of Elishah was that which covered thee. The inhabitants of Zidon and Arvad were thy mariners; thy wise men that were within thee, were thy pilots. The ancients of Gebal, and the wise men thereof were in thee, thy caulkers; all the ships of the sea, with their mariners, were in thee, to occupy thy merchandise. Tarshish was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of all kinds of riches; with silver, iron, tin, and lead, they traded in thy fairs. Javan, Tubal, and Meshech, were thy merchants; they traded *the persons of men* and vessels of brass in thy market. Syria was thy merchant by reason of the multitude of the wares of thy making: they occupied in thy fairs with emeralds, purple and brodered work, and fine linen, coral, and agate. Judah and the land of Israel, they were thy merchants. Damascus was thy merchant. Arabia, and all the princes of Kedar, in thee, were thy merchants. The ships of Tarshish did sing of thee in thy markets, and thou wast replenished and made very glorious in the midst of the seas. What city is like Tyrus? By thy great wisdom and by thy traffic hast thou increased thy riches, and thy heart is lifted up because of thy riches!"

The fate of this great city we are all familiar with. Sacked

and destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, it was only rebuilt to suffer the same dismal fate at the hands of Alexander. Tyre, the ancient mariner and merchant, has left behind but few traces of his opulence, and the nation of whom Tibullus wrote—"Prima ratem ventis credere docta Tyros," and of whom God decreed, "thou shalt be a terror, and shalt never be any more," fulfilled at last its destiny.

Carthage was a colony of the Phœnicians planted in Africa. The infant settlement, by the extension of its trade and the energy and enterprise of its inhabitants, soon grew up to a stature so great and powerful, that the salvation of the Roman empire admitted but of one voice at its capital—*Carthago delenda esse*: Carthage must be destroyed. This commercial people, through two of the bloodiest and most protracted wars of which history has any mention, met, braved and defied the "Eagle" and the mailed legions of Rome, and only yielded at last with a struggle worthy of Homer's deities.

Before the Greek states began to send out colonies to the numerous islands of the *Ægean*, the Greeks knew little of foreign trade. So soon, however, as these little bands migrated off from the mother country, the influences of their position, free institutions and unrestricted customs began to be felt among themselves, and to re-act upon the parent states. Nearly all of Grecian commerce, prior to the time of Alexander, was confined to this trade with the colonies.

The Romans never were a trading people. Their sympathies were for agriculture, war and conquest. Trade was held in contempt, and nothing but the sword and the plow were counted honorable. To every person of rank, birth, or fortune, (says Kent,) the Romans prohibited commerce; and no senator was allowed to own a vessel larger than a boat sufficient to carry his own corn and fruits. They were content to receive through Egypt those supplies of Eastern commodities which ministered to their luxury and taste. When the empire was removed to Byzantium, in the Fourth Century, the commerce of Rome, such as it was, fell almost entirely into decay.

All Scandinavia and the northern hive poured down in the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Centuries, upon Rome, their myriads of barbarians. Huns, Goths, Vandals, Attilas, and Alarics—these terrific men swept away all traces of civilization for a gloomy period, and with fire and sword desolated the whole of Southern Europe. Commerce received a death-blow in the struggles of this era.

The Byzantine or Greek empire, meanwhile continued its intercourse with Alexandria, and received thence its oriental supplies, until the Arabians, seizing upon Egypt, put a stop at

last to this lucrative branch of commerce. We next hear of the Byzantians sailing up the Indus to its highest navigable points, transporting their commerce thence overland to Oxus, and down to the Caspian Sea. Having reached the sea, they made sail into the Volga; transported their commodities across the country to the Tanais, thence to the Euxine, to be shipped there ultimately for Byzantium itself.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon that period of darkness and gloom which settled down upon the seats of ancient letters, civilization and commerce, when the lights of Rome and Greece had been put out, and bloodshed, anarchy, and fierce discord attained their despotic empire. It seemed as if God had cursed and withered the fair work of his own hand.

There rose at last in Italy, upon these ruins, a community which has been celebrated in every subsequent age. "Pisa was the first republic that rose into power after the dismemberment of the Roman empire," says Mr. Lester in his "My Consulship," "and to her, modern times are more indebted for their civilization than to any other people who have flourished since the ancient Romans."

If Italy witnessed the flickering and expiring rays of that light which, in its full blaze had illumined the ancient world, it was on the soil of Italy that it was re-lit again in the progress of centuries, and it was from thence that darkened Europe caught the first faint beams of morning which broke upon the world. The night of arts, sciences, and commerce, was dissipated by the lights which shone from the Adriatic and the free Italian republics.

We are to speak of Venice and Genoa, who were to modern ages what Tyre and Carthage were to those which had been numbered before the Christian era. Inspired with the recollections of the past, and full of the holy associations of the moment, Byron standing on the "Bridge of Sighs," and viewing the ruins of Italian glory—

"Where Venice sat in state throned on her hundred isles,"

with full heart and impassioned eloquence, lamented over the mistress of the Adriatic, her "dead doges," her perished commerce, her "crumbling palaces" and exhausted treasures—

"In youth she was all glory—a new Tyre;
Her very by-word sprung from victory—
The 'Planter of the Lion,' which through fire
And blood she bore o'er subject earth and sea;
Though making many slaves, herself still free,
And Europe's bulwark 'gainst the Ottomite."

Venice, Genoa, and Pisa excelled in genius, spirit and enter-

prise, all the nations of Europe. Driven from barbarous invasion to their retreats, these republics, territorially contracted, and little favored in soil, reached to a pitch of opulence and empire which excites our highest admiration. Their rich argosies went out upon the Mediterranean, and their mariners braved the storms of every ocean. Liberty spoke in their halls, and law resumed again its sway. One of the best commercial codes which the world has ever known, we are told, originated in the councils of Pisa.

In the Tenth Century, Venice had established commercial intercourse with the Saracens of Egypt and Syria, for their staples of sugar and rice, for dates, senna, cassia, flax, linen, balm, perfumes, galls, wrought silks, soaps, etc. She traded, too, for the rich spices and precious stones of India, and with merchandise so rare and rich entered the markets of western Europe, and commanded the whole of its valuable trade.

The Italian republics, when the crusades were firing the brains of knights, kings and beggars appeared to be inspired too with some portion of the religious frenzy. But the Italians were too good merchants to enter upon enterprises as wild as these without first stipulating for privileges of commerce and trade from the monarchs whom they might serve. They were not such zealots as to give up their ships without prospect of advantage, when their employment in carrying helmets, breast-plates, and tall soldiery, was as good as carrying bales of stuffs and merchandise.

We cannot refrain here from introducing a passage from Lester's letter on the "Consular System," which is eloquently descriptive of the progress of one of these republics, and which emanates from a man who was inspired by a residence on its very soil.

"Genoa contributed more powerfully than any other Italian state to the early crusades. The Ligurian* Republic had been able to resist the rush of barbarians from the North, and had, even in the Ninth Century, nearly destroyed the Saracen empire in the islands of the Mediterranean and on the African coast. More deeply fired with the spirit of maritime adventure than almost any other state in the world, she led the way in the commerce of the East, and closed her magnificent career by the discovery of the New World. Even before the time of Peter the Hermit, she had opened a flourishing commerce with Asia, and she was present at the conquest of Antioch and of Jerusalem. The chivalric leaders of those bold enterprises well knew how much they owed to her valor and commercial activity: and the red cross in the white field, the ensign of the Ligurian republic, was planted on the towers of Antioch and the battlements of Jerusalem. Godfrey and Baldwin ordered the following inscription to be placed over the Holy Sepulchre: '*Stronghold of the Genoese.*' She formed treaties with the Moorish and African princes, and gained, by diplomacy

* This name, derived from the Romans, was generally used by the Genoese till the downfall of their republic.

or conquest, a strong foothold in the Black Sea, where she founded a powerful colony that augmented her commercial wealth incredibly."

When Pisa, in those fearful contests which shook the shores of Italy, had yielded to the arms of Genoa, this state eclipsed then even Venice herself.

Whatever may be thought of the crusades in this period of the world's enlightenment, all history attests that they introduced, into Europe, Eastern tastes and customs, and led the way to an extension of commerce, and ultimately to a new era of light, truth and liberty.

In the northern parts of Europe, on the Baltic, and in the island of Gothland, grew up, between the Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries, the city of Wisburg. The marine ordinances of this now decayed town are celebrated in the annals of commercial nations. Cleirac gives a glowing account of the wealth and prosperity of the city. He speaks of it then as the most celebrated and flourishing emporium in Europe, where merchants from all parts come to traffic, and had their shops and warehouses, and enjoyed the same privileges as the native inhabitants themselves. Chancellor Kent, in commenting upon the passage from Cleirac, and contrasting with it the Wisburg of the Baltic as we find it now, finds the occasion fitting to indulge the "melancholy admonition of the poet," that "trade's proud empire hastes to swift decay."

Between the years 1164 and 1254, was formed in Europe what is known in history (and famed as known) as the Hanseatic League. The object of this league was protection to the trade of the free cities which formed it, from the robber clans and "roving barbarians" of the North, and the pirates which swarmed in every sea. Lubeck was at the head of the league of Hanse towns, and her first allies in the federacy were Brunswick, Bremen, Hamburg, Dantzic and Cologne. The league extended its influence to embrace most of the trading cities of Northern Europe, and attained to so great power as to form treaties with sovereigns themselves. Its duration was terminated at last by the jealousy of these sovereigns, who withdrew their cities from the alliance.

In coming down to modern times, we tread upon ground so familiar, that any lengthy exhibition of the extension of commerce will be unnecessary. We all know, familiarly enough, that at the present moment, cotton, woollens, silks and French wines have larger influence in making Americans, Englishmen and Frenchmen shake hands over their quarrels, and avow that they have loved each other right well, than all the natural affection they might ever be supposed to entertain for each other put together, and all their universal philanthropy in the

bargain. We have said before, and repeat it, that the mercantile interests rule the world, and right grateful are we that Providence has imposed so firm a ligament to join together his fractions, headstrong and over-erring children. We sometimes meet with fine treatises on benevolence, disinterested philanthropy, and other things of the same stamp; and once upon a time were fond ourselves of talking about the "dignity of human nature," etc.; but after all, human nature is not without its frailties, and the "stern Saxon," without being anything of a coward either, will never attempt to dictate peace at the cannon's mouth with his neighbor on this side of the water, while he has broadcloths to sell, and two millions and a half bags of cotton to buy. And we do not slander the neighbor on this side of the water much by a similar remark.

But Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Wisburg and the Hanse towns, such as they were, have passed away, and the commerce of the world is in other hands. The hardy Portuguese mariners, in discovering the new passage to the East, round the Cape of Good Hope, struck a blow at the Italian republics from which they never recovered. Spain and Portugal, on the discovery of America, divided the world between themselves, and struggled to establish a magnificent commercial monopoly. The famous treaty of Tordesillas, 1494, entered into between these nations, opened the eyes of England to the schemes which were to exclude her from a participation in the best fruits of either India.

"The progress of commerce," says Robertson, in his admirable chapter introductory to the History of Charles V., "the progress of commerce had considerable influence in polishing the manners of the European nations, and in establishing among them order, equal laws, and humanity. It tends to wear off those prejudices which maintain distinction and animosity between nations. It softens and polishes the manners of men. It unites them by one of the strongest of all ties, the desire of supplying their mutual wants. It disposes them to peace by establishing in every state an order of citizens bound by their interests to be the guardians of public tranquillity. In proportion as commerce made its way into the different countries of Europe, they successively turned their attention to those objects and adopted those manners which occupy and distinguish polished nations."

¶ In the Fourteenth Century, we are told by Hallam—History Middle Ages, p. 475—that Flanders had become a market for all the world; and that merchants from seventeen kingdoms had their settled domiciles at Bruges, besides strangers from almost unknown countries.

Edward III. was the father of English commerce. Before his reign no advances of any character had been made in that country to extend its foreign intercourse, but Edward set himself in earnest to build up and establish the kingdom. He

invited over from Flanders artisans and workmen, who may almost be said to have originated the manufacturing system of England. It is not a little curious to consider the motives which were held out to this enterprising body of men, as they are furnished for us in a venerable record. They were told that in England "they should feed on fat beef and mutton, till nothing but their fullness should stint their stomachs; that their beds should be good and their bed-fellows better, seeing the richest yeomen in England would not disdain to marry their daughters unto them." The products of the labors of these craftsmen, feeding upon "fat beef and mutton" to respectable corpulency, became soon known and famous in the markets of all Europe.

There was little mercantile spirit in England before the time of Queen Elizabeth. True it is, that King John's barons forced the monarch into an acknowledgment of the rights of foreign merchants visiting the empire; but it was long after King John and his barons, ere the English people began to appreciate the advantages of foreign trade. Henry the Eighth was cruel and tyrannical, and taxed illegally the interests he ought to have fostered. Elizabeth had greatness of mind sufficient for the purposes of empire, and had she been as well acquainted with the true principles which regulate trade, as she was desirous of stimulating it in every way, she had been higher praised in history. Her numerous monopolies granted, whether of sweet wines, licenses, or whatever else, were blunders which could only be accounted for by favoritism, were it not notorious that at that period these were considered in themselves to be evidences of sound policy.

In a lecture, delivered by T. W. Tucker, of New York, on the merchants of the time of Queen Elizabeth, published many years ago in *Hunt's Magazine*, there is an enumeration of the various monopolies which were granted by that sovereign. We are happy to lay our hands on the address at this moment, as it will save us from farther reference on the point.

The Dutch traders of London, resident at a part of it called the Stilyard, were famous at that epoch, and obtained privileges and immunities from the monarch sufficient to set up the most grinding monopolies.

On the fall of the Dutch traders, the company of English merchant adventurers was formed. This company, too, rose to great wealth and importance, exporting annually English woolen clothes to the amount of £1,000,000 sterling, and maintaining abroad the highest possible credit. The Russia company, about the same time, and the Turkey company existed. The latter traded with India and reached the heart of the Mogul

empire. Hard upon these followed the Morocco company, the company of Eastland merchants, the Hamburg company, the Guinea and the East India companies. Sir Francis Drake, in some of his little short of piratical cruising, first suggested to England the importance of the Indian trade. This trade enriched the sovereign then, and has enriched the nation ever since.

We pass over that stormy season which occupied the larger portions of the reigns of James I. and Charles I. In the disasters of anarchy and civil war which befell the nation at this time, it would have been impossible for commercial enterprise to exhibit itself in any of its higher developments.

Hume, indeed, has informed us that in the reign of James I. the Dutch traded to England with six hundred ships, but England in turn could furnish on her own account but sixty ships in the same traffic. Nine-tenths of the English commerce at this period consisted of woolen manufactured goods.

The administration of Cromwell was crowned with many results favorable to trade. The liberal principles of the Protector could not endure those severe restrictions and monopolies in which the prosperity of the nation had been bound up, and he abolished them all.

When Charles II. was restored to the throne of his father, a new impulse appeared to be given to everything in England, so much so, that Russell affirms in his *Modern Europe*, "that at no former or subsequent period did England ever make such rapid progress in commerce and riches as during that inglorious one which followed the Restoration, and terminated in the expulsion of the Stuarts."

The present enormous commercial stature of Great Britain is attributed by McCulloch, not to the heaps upon heaps of parliamentary acts for the encouragement of navigation and trade, but to the extraordinary improvements and consequent extension of her manufactures since 1770. Happily seated upon an island girt around by the sea, she finds that the extraordinary influence which she is exerting upon the world, is dependent more upon the immensity of her naval armaments and commercial marine than upon the extent of her territories, or the numerical proportion of her inhabitants. Like Athens of old, she finds strength and safety in her "wooden walls."

The cotton manufacturing system of England has been the offspring, great as it is, of the last ninety years. At the commencement of this period it was nothing; at its termination half the entire exports of British produce consists of cotton stuffs and yarn. England looks upon her Hargraves, Arkwrights, Cromptons and Watts, as America does upon her Ful-

tons and Whitneys; but England looks upon her own liberty and enterprise as above them all. In fact, says one of her writers, when these are impaired, the colossal fabric of her prosperity will crumble into dust; and the commerce of Liverpool, London and Glasgow, like that of Tyre, Carthage and Palmyra, will, at no distant period, be famous only in history.

We come at last to consider the subject before us, in connection with the past and present history of America. There is reason enough to dwell upon the ample enterprise, and stubborn, unyielding spirit of the people who fled across the ocean from the tyrannies of the Old World, and established, among the deep forests of the New, the germs of a nation which has already become great. What could subdue the spirit of a people like this? Rugged as their own wild homes, the infant colonists braved the seas and the storms. They dug the graves of tyrants with the same implements that brought them bread out of the soil. Struggling with the desperate savage at one moment, they braved at the next the fierce storms and monsters of the deep. There is no adolescence in such a people. They spring into manhood's vigor from the infant's imbecility.

There went up into the high court of Parliament, as early as the year 1670, a grave charge against the colonies which England "protected" across the ocean. Said the ministers, they violate our ordinances of trade with impunity, and our navigation laws, which with infinite pains we have devised, they trample under foot with disdain. Their traders sally out upon the deep, and we find them seeking entrance into all the ports of Europe. "They even encourage"—these are the words of the remonstrance—"they even encourage foreigners to trade with them."

One hundred years after this, Edmund Burke stood up, in the halls of the same Parliament of England, an advocate of freedom and humanity, and a deadly, implacable foe to their assailants.

This noble Roman found in the wrongs of his countrymen across the ocean a theme worthy of his highest eloquence, and in their daring enterprise that which was too much even for his unmatched powers to portray. Who does not remember his inimitable speech in which the orator found all his country at his heart? We cannot refrain an extract, and we seem to see all the glory of our country shadowed forth in what was but a graphic sketch of the hardy enterprise of the sons of New England.

"While we followed them," said the orator, "among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic

Circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes and engaged under the frozen serpent of the South. Falkland Islands, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for national ambition to grasp, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their vigorous industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that while some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coasts of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries—no climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood.”*

As early as 1647, as we are informed by Holmes in his *American Annals*, a flourishing trade was opened by the New England colonies with Barbadoes and the other islands of the West Indies.

In 1685, a collector of revenues at the port of Charleston, in South Carolina, was appointed by the home government. This was but a few years subsequent to the foundation of the city. Charleston progressed rapidly in commercial importance, and before the Revolution, as an importing and exporting city, maintained an equality with Boston, New York and Philadelphia.

In 1690 began the hardy enterprise of the whale fishermen of Nantucket. This little island, situated far out from the main land, black, sterile, and scarcely inhabitable, with not a tree of its own native growth and scarcely an inviting prospect to cheer its inhabitants, or minister to their ease and gratification, has yet been enabled to reach to an enviable distinction in commercial wealth. We know not where to affix the limits of the hardihood and daring of these enterprising men. They have planted a garden upon a rock, and they have become rich by hard toil where Nature has been most stinting in her favors.

The trade of Massachusetts alone, in the year 1717, brought into constant activity and employment four hundred and ninety-two ships, and nearly four thousand sailors.

In 1730, we are informed that there arrived in England from America 154 tons of oil, and 9,200 tons of whalebone; and that in the first fifteen days of July in the same year 10,000 hogsheads of sugar reached the same port from the British American sugar colonies. In the ensuing year, Massachusetts employed six hundred ships and sloops, and five thousand fishermen.

The commerce of New England, as early as 1742, required

* Griffith's Notes on American Colonies.

for its support upwards of one thousand sail of vessels, while at the South, Charleston alone loaded, in 1744, two hundred and thirty.

The trade of Britain with her American colonies employed, in 1769, 1,078 ships, and 28,910 seamen. The value of her imports from them for that year amounted to £3,370,900 and of their imports from her to £3,924,606.

The following table, taken from Holmes' Annals, exhibits the progress of this trade for the years named :

		Imports from colonies	Exports to colonies
Annual average,	1700 to 1710.....	£265,000.....	£267,000.....
"	1710 to 1720.....	292,000.....	365,000.....
"	1720 to 1730.....	578,000.....	471,000.....
"	1730 to 1740.....	670,000.....	660,000.....
"	1740 to 1750.....	708,000.....	812,000.....
"	1750 to 1760.....	802,000.....	1,577,000.....
"	1760 to 1770.....	1,044,000.....	1,762,000.....
"	1770 to 1780.....	743,000.....	1,331,000.....

Mr. Burke stated in Parliament in the year 1775, that the trade with America alone, at that time, was within less than £500,000 of being equal to what the great commercial nation of England carried on at the beginning of that century with all the world.

The first year which witnessed peace between England and her colonies, now raised to the dignity of free and independent states, witnessed the opening on their part of a new and lucrative branch of trade with China, which at the present moment, in exports and imports together, is worth annually little short of eight or nine millions of dollars.

Toward the close of the Eighteenth Century, 1795, we are informed that a vessel sailed from Charleston to the East Indies, the very first enterprise of the kind which was undertaken by that city.

The confederating "articles" which carried the American states through one of the most glorious revolutions on record, were found in every respect inadequate to keep together these states on terms of equal rights and prosperity at the restoration of peace. The conflicting institutions of so many sovereignties, without any head of acknowledged power and influence, tended to paralyze commercial movements, and entirely to arrest those advances which had been already made. One of the most powerful inducements which operated upon the minds of these states to enter upon a new and better compact, was found in the absolute requisitions of commerce, and the immortal constitution under which we now live finds its origin here.

Scarcely more than three quarters of a century has elapsed since

the Federal Constitution was adopted, and in that period American advance has already rivalled the dreams of eastern fiction. Every sea and navigable water under the face of heaven witnesses the white wings of her shipping, and hears the bold voices of her mariners. Her flag is upon the deep, and it floats alike at either pole and at the equator, on the uppermost limits of the globe. Great as has been her progress in the past, there is a prophetic voice which tells us that she has but begun to enter upon that bright and glorious "empire of the seas" which is yet to be hers. We have laid the foundations of cities which occupy rank with the Tyres and Carthages of antiquity, and must soon rival the Londons of the present day. To what is New York indebted for that extraordinary position which she has taken in the Republic, but to the centralization of nearly all of its foreign trade in her midst; and New Orleans, at the other extremity of latitude, is she not marching onward in the same pathway to commercial greatness?

So much is there of poetry and romance in the extension, through all ages, of commercial enterprise, that we can easily be excused some enthusiasm and a fond lingering o'er the theme. At the fountain head we recognized commerce in its simplest stage among nature's recent, rude and unpolished children. We marked its gradual progress. Following the astute Israelite in his bargains for the gold which enriched the temple of Solomon and the streets of Jerusalem, we saw the hardy Phœnician launching out his bark upon the deep, guided only on his perilous voyages by the stars of heaven. We heard the busy voices of Greeks upon the *Ægean*; we saw the stern Roman curling his lip on his trading neighbor with disdain; and while yet Venice in all its splendor sat mistress of the now "spouseless" and deserted Adriatic, we met with the merchants that congregated at the Rialto from every quarter of the inhabitable globe. We turned our eyes to the Baltic, and contemplated the wonderful "league" which it witnessed, and closing the volume of antiquity and of the middle ages, there remained alone the great maritime and commercial powers of Britain and America. With these the picture closed. What, then, remains of the sketch we designed, but hurriedly to trace some of those effects, most marked, which the empire of commerce over the world naturally and necessarily exerts. These will occupy us but a moment.

When political economy first began to attract the attention of men, and give birth to the erroneous theories with which it so long exerted control, commerce, as a source of national wealth, was derided. It was asked, where was the creative power which it had ever exerted, or could ever exert? Had

it ever developed two blades of grass where but one existed before? Could it ever substantially add a jot or tittle to the *intrinsic* value of a single commodity? With agriculture, said these men, it is directly the reverse. Agriculture is legitimate wealth. It is the creator, the producer of value—it affords something out of nothing. Commerce is mere transportation of agricultural wealth; the laborer hired to carry produce from its maker to its consumer. Can such transportation add anything to the *intrinsic* value of the article transported? If it can, we have only to continue its motion, adding transportation to transportation, without reference to place, and we make accretion after accretion to its value, until, in process of time, it becomes precious beyond all price or compare. Must we be led into such absurdity?

In progress of time it came to be considered, that however plausible the reasonings of these philosophers, there was much of sophistry involved in them, and that the wealthy agriculturists, proud, lordly; and reliant upon their ample acres, were disposed naturally enough to keep up a prejudice so favorable to their interests. The various laws passed in Great Britain, in particular at the period of which we treat, for the benefit of the landholders, and the great jealousy which was exercised toward trading corporations, as, for instance, toward London, all strikingly evince the truth of this.

When commerce began to come more into favor, a distinction was soon set up. It was yielded that foreign commerce might really be of benefit to a nation, and add to its available wealth; but in regard to domestic commerce—merchandising—the home trade—these were regarded as little more beneficial to a community, on the score of new wealth, than ballad singing, or mountebank exhibitions. The last thing which men could be induced to credit was, that the trade intermediate between the importer and consumer, was in any sense productive of wealth. This proposition has, however, become settled in the almost demonstrative reasoning of modern political science; and we may hope that doubts and speculations so inimical to the interests of prominent and useful classes in the community will never be raised again. Freed from these unworthy prejudices, commerce, whether foreign or domestic, comes at once to be admitted as a legitimate source of national aggrandizement.

We have sometimes heard it gravely alleged that the commercial spirit is unfavorable to the existence of true patriotic sentiment and exertion. We have been told that it severs the ties which bind the individual to his native soil, and disposes him to yield much, too much, to the policy of contemporary nations; that the commercial spirit merges the citizen in the

cosmopolite, and awakens a keener sensitiveness to national interests than to national honor. Even Burke endorsed the doctrine with the high authority of his name, when he characterized the merchant's desk as his altar, his ledger as his bible, and his money as his god. But is there anything of truth or justice in the charge? Has it appeared in the development of the world's history, that there has been any natural hostility between the merchant and the patriot? Has it been found that commercial communities have been disposed to submit to aggression with easy compliance, and put on the yoke of conquest without a struggle? Was it so with Tyre when the Greek conqueror was thundering at her gates? Did puissant Rome, on her seven hills, ever contend with an enemy bolder, fiercer, and more desperate than the descendants of the Phœnician traders at Carthage? Were the Italian States easy victories to the aggressions of foreign foes, or were they at all less glorious in arms than in enterprise? Have the late civil wars in America despite of the commercial spirit of its people North or South, exhibited any decline in the martial ardor and spirit which marked the olden time of the Republic? We shall not pause to answer such questions.

We have no idea that there are in commerce any tendencies like those we have been combating. It disposes nations to be just and liberal in their intercourse with others, but it changes not their own individuality—their own pride of character—in any point that it ought not to be changed. Merchants there have been in all ages and countries who have added to the glory and honor of their states, by the highest and noblest exertions of patriotism. Men enjoying the confidence of their sovereigns, and exhausting their coffers in defense of the realm, have been found in this class, and we shall, upon another occasion, enumerate the most distinguished examples which history furnishes us. The merchants of London were, even in the earliest times, the bankers of the crown; and Elizabeth in particular knew what it was, on many an occasion, in her own exigencies, and in the exigencies of the kingdom, to have her purse replenished from their liberal coffers. In our own country we may be permitted to say that there has on no occasion been displayed a truer love of country, and a loftier tone of patriotism than by our merchant citizens. They have fallen behind none in the assertion of the rights and liberties of the Republic.

Commerce is a natural guardian of the arts and sciences. Under its influence the highest results have been stimulated. To what, for instance, can the astonishing progress and perfection to which astronomy has been carried be attributed, more

than to the ever-arising wants of navigation? The solution of the problem of the latitudes and longitudes has been promised, at different periods, the highest premiums of government. It has set astronomers at toil which only terminated in brilliant discovery. The various problems of navigation even now demand the highest labors of these men in every country, and the mere tables of a nautical almanac—the calculation of eclipses, occultations, and parallaxes—calls into action a degree of scientific skill which can scarcely be appreciated by the uninitiated. The mariner's compass, quadrant, or chronometer, are miracles of art as well as of science. From every nation in the world commerce has brought together her trophies, and laid them at the feet of science. Without leaving his closet, the student of nature may arrive at profound results in the investigation of animals, plants, shells and minerals, scattered over the whole globe—above the earth, and under the earth, and down to the depths of the sea. Every art and science acknowledges its large indebtedness to the hand of commerce for the influence it is enabled to wield over nature in extending the empire and dominion of man.

Commerce is the parent of civilization. We are acquainted with but one agency which excels it in perpetuating peace and good will among men, and elevating national character, and that agency is Christianity. But even the heralds of the cross, with all their noble and inspiring theme, have not penetrated farther into the depths of savage wildernesses, or among the fiercest islands of the ocean; have not crossed mountains and deserts more desolate and terrific, have not plunged more fearlessly in the midst of horrid idolatry, cannibalism, and semi-demonism, than have these men of bales and merchandise in their search after trade. They have gone hand in hand with the missionary, where they have not acted as his pioneer. It was thus in the early history of America. Marquette and Allouez, fathers in the Roman Church, were even distanced in energy by the adventurous La Salle in the first visits which were made by civilized men to the howling wilderness westward of the lakes. It is thus with the hunters and trappers of Oregon and California, who, as far upward as the Russian limit, and south to Mexico, prosecute trade with the savage, as yet ignorant of his soul and of his Maker. It is most strikingly thus in the case of the Sandwich Islands. Commerce, acting as the adjunct or handmaiden of Christianity among the savages there, has transformed them into men and into citizens. We see a trophy won to civilization—a people added to the Christian nations of the earth.

Let us take the extremest limit of the ocean, the stormiest

islet of the sea, struggling against a thousand billows, and what do we find? The sailor and the trader have been there, and the return of the "white wings" is hailed by anxious multitudes, who bring out their treasures to be bartered for the veriest trifles of civilization. From the intercourse which arises, new wants are stimulated in their bosoms. They begin to think with the new objects which occasion thought. Their views and ideas are naturally expanded to a wider compass, and they are insensibly moulded in the type of those who have excited their highest admiration and wonder. Mysterious, beneficent and wise are the ways of Providence, when even the interests of men are called into requisition to work out the great problem of their existence.

Commerce, in fine, is what it has been beautifully entitled, "the golden girdle of the globe." It binds together all the great families of men. It teaches that they are creatures of like wants, errors and necessities. It determines them to be component parts of a great and magnificent system which God has devised, and which requires the concurring movements of every part to be preserved in its perfection and duration. It forbids them to treat, like the ancient Roman, the foreigner cast upon their shores, as a barbarian deserving of death, or to confiscate his shipwrecked effects, but urges rather the doctrines of humanity and justice. Even the laws which regulate it are based upon the immutable principles of right, and bind the consciences of men from their very nature. As Mansfield, the most celebrated commercial lawyer of his age, said of them, quoting the splendid language of Cicero: "*Nec erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis; alia nunc, alia posthac; sed et omnes gentes, et omni tempore una lex et sempiterna, et immortalis continebat.*"—they are not one law at Rome and another at Athens; they do not fluctuate from extreme to extreme; but among all men, and in all times, the laws of commerce are one and immutable.

ART. II.—THE STATE OF THE COUNTRY.

NOTHING can be more interesting to thoughtful minds, than the present of our own country. We read, it is true, with great care, the histories of other times and other countries. We rejoice when the antiquary, groping in the twilight of the past, stumbles upon some historical stone, or, more fortunate still, lays bare the foundation of a buried Herculaneum; but no time is so

profoundly interesting to us as the present, no country so important as our own. A review of the present condition of our affairs must at least give food for thought. All are familiar with the wise and magnanimous policy of the President, in winning back the erring sisters of the South to their old place around the family altar. The general success of that policy has furnished matter of surprise and congratulation to the friends of peace everywhere. Under the influence of this policy order has sprung out of chaos; the sword, red with fraternal blood, has fallen from firm hands which now grasp the plough, and heroic steps march to the workshop which erewhile resounded on the battle-field. With a facility for accommodating themselves to circumstances, peculiar to the American character, the people have turned from the shock of battle to operate the machinery of civil government. Conventions, and legislatures, and governors, not provisional, but regular, stamped with the legitimate sanction of popular election, and judges with all the paraphernalia of justice have been evoked from somnolent abeyance, and move across the stage in solemn and grand procession of peaceful errand "where armies whole have sunk." Commerce, the regent of this lower world, has resumed his regal sway. The roads of iron so often torn up, while Mars was in the ascendant, now do their peaceful errands. The press has been most busy dispensing light. The telegraph wires no longer flash heroically with the fire of battle, but plodding continuously transmit incessant messages of commonplace business. The mails again fly over the land, diffusing thought. In short "War hath smoothed his wrinkled front," and Peace with her selectest influences has settled upon the land.

In the recent elections in the loyal States, the great question was, who was the best friend to the President. Each party claimed preëminently to support the President. The President must doubtless have contemplated with a certain degree of surprise the accordance of those, who harmonizing in nothing else, yet professed the most ardent devotion to him. It is true, here and there, from the crowd of politicians a discordant note was heard. Mr. Wendel Phillips, who has such a large degree of the genius of expression, did most unmistakably berate the Executive. Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, too, did hold forth on an extreme line, and did by no means appear reconciled to the policy of pacification with rebels, and was for grinding them up a little harder, and especially proposed to carry on hostilities through confiscation laws, until much of the national debt should be paid. But these were exceptions to the general cry; the current of opinion seemed to flow favorable to the President.

As the session of Congress approached, the eyes of the thoughtful were turned to its deliberations. Some who were familiar with the worth of party pledges and professions, looked with more curiosity than faith to the Congress. It required no prophet to tell that there must be two opinions in Congress, one which said, Go on, the other which said, Stop. One which said, Nothing is done for the negro, until everything is done. The other which said, We have done the work of a century since the first gun was fired, we can afford to rest.

As soon as Congress convened, it became evident that there was a difference between before the election and after. The loud professions of devotion to the President, uttered so freely before the elections, did not seem to promise very early fruit; for the first thing the President's party friends did on reaching Washington, was, under the leadership of Mr. Stevens, to put the President's Reconstruction policy on trial, by referring the whole subject to a Joint Committee of both Houses. In the meantime the doors of Congress were closed upon the members elect from the Southern States, who were left outside to exercise their patience in the best way they could. It is very evident the Joint Committee will not prosecute this inquiry with anything like indecent haste, and Congress are not therefore likely to be hurried to premature action on the subject. We can very readily understand that the leaders of the Republican party do not go about restoring the Southern States to their political rights with very great ardor. Of all things a political organization is most unwilling to commit suicide. The Republican chiefs feel that they cannot, in reason, expect the aid of the restored States. They count upon this strength being so much clear gain to the hated opposition. As matters now stand, they are very good for the party in power—all the power, all the patronage, all the patriotism, all the profit of politics belong to it. Those who control this party, do not see how they can improve things by a change. The Southern States excluded, they have all the advantages of possessing the Government. They can carry out their policy in legislation. Now is the time for them, they think, to take "bonds of fate," so that the sceptre of the future may not be wrenched from them by "unlinial hands." The restoration of the Southern States to political power appears to these men a serious, though perhaps, an unavoidable evil. They feel that at some time or other they must admit the South, but they are not disposed to hasten this day in the slightest degree. Another idea with these leaders of Republicanism in Congress is, that before the gulf between the South is bridged over, the status of the freedmen in the South must be secured as firmly as possible. Those who feel

the influence of this idea, would bend everything else to obtaining this security. They would make negro equality perfect in every shape, even to the right of suffrage, and this as a condition precedent to the admission of the States. Those under the influence of this idea would be the most uncompromising in their course of any, for theirs is a fanaticism, and fanaticism never compounds, but pursues its purpose without regard to time or circumstances, or obstacles. The idea of political policy fortifies this spirit of fanaticism, for these radical leaders feel that if the right of suffrage was extended to the slaves South, they would have the material at the South of a great political party. This party they think would be entirely subservient to them, and receive its impulse and direction entirely from them. Hence, negro suffrage at the South is not merely a fanatical cry, but a political policy. Coupled with this idea of the elevation of the negro at the South as elector, is the depression of those who have hitherto done the thinking of the South, the political leaders of the South. Hence, a supposed necessity of maintaining rigorously the test oath, so as to exclude all who have taken any prominent part in the civil or military councils of the South from the halls of Congress. Another idea, which has great effect with the majority in Congress, is the inviolability of the national debt. They imagine they see the phantom of repudiation entering Congress, with the members from the South. This idea represents the great power of the public creditors, a proverbially timid class, who scent danger afar off, and wish to oppose every obstacle to its approach. Then, we regret to say, we think some portion of this majority do not cultivate the most amiable feelings for the South. To their gangrened eyes the South is still a camp of traitors trying to destroy, *per fas et nefas*, the Federal Government. They cannot believe in the evidences of Southern loyalty, which they see before them. For them, Lee is still defending Richmond with tripple lines of circumvallation, and Davis is conscripting new armies to eternize the struggle. They can almost hear in their fancy the roar of rebel artillery, and the clash of disloyal swords. But, if you insist that they are mistaken, that there are no more hostile armies in the field, and that the national flag floats unchallenged over all the land, they ominously shake their head in reply, and say, "So much the worse for the country, disloyalty is in the heart, and does not show itself with drawn sword, but more dangerously plots in secret, seeks to come to an understanding with Democracy, and to abduct their own President." These men are not infected with the virtue of magnanimity. They do not know how to spare the vanquished. For them, in vain have armies of dying

heroes strewed the earth with their bleeding bodies. For them, in vain has our country been made a vast charnel house, and the blood of the brave crimsoned a thousand fields of battle. Ah, if they could but realize the agony of the South, "if that their breasts be made of penetrable stuff," they would be touched. Tears would run down the cheeks of the most iron-hearted. Look at that most unhappy South, beaten in battle, devastated by terrible armies, whose march was lit up by the flames of burning dwellings, the personal property of the South almost annihilated, the servile class raised suddenly to freedom and equality, the labor of the country paralyzed, the source of income dried up, wealth extinguished, poverty universal, the frame-work of society disjointed, the youth of the country destroyed in battle, widows and orphans, tears and lamentations everywhere. And all incurred for failure. Everything precious in national life, everything dear in domestic life, sacrificed to the avenging Nemesis. Surely, to every true and noble heart, to all of heroic mould, the condition of the South appeals irresistibly for sympathy. But there are coarse natures which do not harbor these generous emotions, and this is one of the present difficulties of the South. In this sublunary world we have to deal with men of the earth. The South must make her account of all this, and learn to endure, as the unfortunate must always do.

In considering, as we have done, the adverse influences which bar the doors of the capitol to the approach of the South, without undertaking to predict the final result of Congressional action, we may at least venture to express an apprehension that the decision will be delayed some time. Delay, in cases where one is called upon to do the disagreeable, is half a victory. The Republicans will certainly have this victory.

In following the course of events in Congress, we are struck with two leading ideas, the fruits of Republicanism. One is negro equality, culminating in negro suffrage; the other is the introduction of a new principle in American Taxation, viz: Export Duties.

This negro question opens a vast field of thought for the statesman or the philosopher. It is one of those momentous questions, that should be considered in all its relations with entire freedom from prejudice or passion, with a simple desire to arrive at the truth, and to find the best possible solution for the difficulties that environ us. That the enfranchised blacks of the South should be treated with the greatest possible kindness, that every reasonable effort should be made to alleviate their condition, to elevate them in the scale of civilization, to educate them for their new situation, to throw around them

all the safeguards of the law; to do, in short, all that can wisely be done for them both by the State and Federal Governments, and especially to cultivate a kind and humane spirit on the part of the white race for them, is what all good people must readily agree to. But when it is proposed to go beyond all this, and to confer upon them "at one fell swoop" the right of suffrage, we cannot, however amiably disposed we may be, yield our assent, but feel compelled to enter our earnest protest.

The right of suffrage is not a natural, but an acquired right. It is a question of expediency, with every representative government, how far it shall extend the electoral franchise. In Great Britain it is limited exclusively to those who have some share in the property of the country. A vast number of the people of Great Britain, having no property qualification, do not vote. The Chartists propose to give a great extension to the right of suffrage, but this movement is opposed by all the great leaders of thought. Great Britain has, undoubtedly, preserved prosperity and freedom for a longer period than any of the European powers, or even the Government of the United States. Indeed, it may be said, we think, with but little fear of contradiction that the Government of Great Britain has been administered with more wisdom for a longer period than any free government. There has, since the failure of the Pretender, been a remarkable exemption from internal revolution. The machinery of government works with more harmony in Great Britain, than in any other country where the people are admitted to a share in public affairs. In analyzing the English government we find that the seat of power is in the House of Commons. This house is the fruit of limited suffrage. If it sprung from universal suffrage, would it function as wisely as it does now? The sentiment in England is that it would not. The statesmen of England act on the assumption that it would not. And we are satisfied that if the English Radicals carry the day, and the House of Commons is filled by universal suffrage, the sun of England's glory will soon go down in dim eclipse, and tumultuous anarchy. In our own country there is very little doubt but that our affairs would go on more prosperously, if the elective franchise were limited by a property qualification. Of course, we do not propose or expect any such reactionary movement as this, but we do not hesitate to express our opinion upon the subject.

In the United States political power springs entirely from the people. In the States, the Executive and Legislative departments are the direct result of popular election. In the Federal Government the Senate is chosen by the electors of

the people, the State Legislatures chosen by popular suffrage, the President is practically elected by the people, and the members of the House of Representatives are directly chosen by general suffrage.

In order to have the great interests of the country wisely conducted, and a successful administration of public affairs, the most capable men should be selected for these various positions of power. The conduct of great affairs requires the highest ability, elevated by patriotic feeling. To obtain this ability and patriotism, it is essential that the elective franchise should produce good fruit. In order for this to be done, the elective franchise must be exercised by the intelligence and virtue of the country. It is only in this way that the best characters are likely to be selected for great stations. But if, on the other hand, the constituency are sunk in ignorance and vice, it would be the height of folly to expect judicious selections for public office. In the long run, the Representative is certain to be the representative man. You can only keep up the standard of the Representative by the elevation of the constituency.

Measured by these principles, how objectionable does it not appear to admit the freedmen of the South to universal suffrage. Their most insane admirers cannot pretend that, as a class, they have the intelligence to fit them for properly fulfilling the great mission of electors. It would be difficult to discover, in any population of like numbers, a greater deficiency in all that kind of information requisite to their duties as electors. Men are not born electors; it requires education to suit them for it. It is not indeed every race of white people who are competent as electors to carry on a representative Government. Neither in France nor Germany, nor on the continent of Europe generally, has the experiment been in any degree encouraging. In Great Britain it has succeeded. Some may say, that it has succeeded in the United States; but it may be said with much force that the experience of the United States is too short to authorize an affirmative judgment. When, like Great Britain, the United States shall have existed for more than a century free from great internal convulsion, and enjoying great national prosperity, then the experiment here may be pronounced a success. So far as we can form an opinion from the facts of history, it may be asserted with great force that the only race capable of properly exercising the elective franchise are the Anglo-Saxon. There are qualities in the German and Latin races which seem to unfit them for self-government. It is a singular coincidence, to say the least of it, go where you will, either in Europe or America, where the German and Latin

racess exist, free government does not. In France and Germany and Italy and Spain and Mexico and South America self-government seems to be impossible. But of all people the most unsuitable that could be selected for the duties of electors, must be the enfranchised slaves of the South, for no people can be more ignorant, than they are, of all that should be known to fit them for such a mission.

Nor can we expect to find in this multitude of enfranchised slaves that elevation of moral feeling, that soul culture, that theory and practice of virtue necessary in the electoral class, if the right functioning of government is to be attained. But without dwelling on this point, we pass on. It is a received maxim in civil polity that property should receive protection in the organization of society. Hence, in Great Britain the property qualification of voters is the corner-stone of civil policy. Hence, then, we can anticipate with what horror Lord John Russell, or Lord Derby, or Mr. Gladstone would receive a proposition to suddenly deliver the control of the electoral colleges to the non-property holders. The very earth would seem to be heaving under their feet at such an idea. And yet that is the very thing now demanded of the South by the Radical leaders. These gentlemen insist upon universal negro suffrage at the South. These negroes own no property. In some of the Southern States they are nearly equal in numbers to the whites; in one State at least, South Carolina, they are more numerous than the whites, and in a great many electoral districts their supremacy in numbers is overwhelming. What evils would grow out of this condition, if the elective franchise were open to them, especially when we remember how exposed they would be to bad counsels from without and evil machinations from within? So portentous of all manner of horrors does the negro suffrage question appear to us, that if it became the law we should consider that the death-warrant of the South was written. While this investing the negroes of the South with the elective franchise would operate so disastrously on the South, it would entail special misfortunes on the negroes. And those who are moved in this matter by a peculiar desire to benefit the negro, should give themselves pause.

The first great desideratum for the prosperity of the negro at the South is, that there should be the greatest degree of harmony between the two races. It is the interest of the white race to be in harmony with the black; it is the interest of the black race to be in harmony with the white. This is the indispensable pre-requisite of prosperity at the South to either race. They must harmonize, or their existence will be

an incessant war, obstructing while it lasts the happiness of both races, and susceptible, if once thoroughly inaugurated, of but one solution—the extermination of the weaker race. The first great paramount good and chief essential blessing to be desired and labored for by every friend to both races at the South is, that there should be concord, accord, harmony, and fraternity between the two races South. We cannot too much insist upon this point. We believe it is the corner-stone upon which must be founded every scheme for the advancement of the blacks and the prosperity of the whites at the South. It is principally on this ground that we deplore the agitation of the question of negro suffrage. It agitates both races; it interposes a gulf between them, and it casts portentous shadows over the future. For the present, let us content ourselves with the development of the material prosperity of the black race; let us aid them to get employment, and to make that employment profitable; let us try to make them prosperous and comfortable and happy; let us, in imitation of the wish of Henry IV. of France, try to put a chicken into every pot that appertains to our colored friends. Having done all we can for their material and moral and intellectual progress, then it will be time enough for us to consider the question of putting in their “gripe the barren sceptre” of universal suffrage. Let us see that our colored friends have a plenty of good food and clothes and fuel to sustain life, before we summon them to the electoral colleges to settle grave affairs of State and determine the destiny of nations.

We might pause here, but we desire to consider the question of the enfranchised blacks in a more extended view. Truly, this is a great question. Let us pause a moment and remember that if the blacks of the South continue to increase as they have done in slavery, in twenty-five years there will be eight millions in the Southern States; in fifty years there will be sixteen millions; in seventy-five years thirty-two millions. It is not necessary to go beyond this last period, which is, however, not a great lapse of time in the life of a nation. That the increase in a state of freedom will be at least equal to what it was in slavery, cannot be gainsayed by those who have demanded emancipation as of great benefit to the blacks. If the increase is any thing like the estimate above, then the momentous question arises, What is to become of this vast black tide, which is destined to mingle with the current of our national existence? Sixteen, or even eight millions of Africans, will be an important element in our history. What is the wisest policy to be pursued in regard to them, is a question worthy of our highest statesmanship. We will

announce our own views on this subject. We hope the intellect of the country will consider it above and apart from the ephemeral party politics of the day.

If it were an entirely new question, whether all the population of the Southern States should be white, or four millions should be African, we apprehend there would be but one opinion on the subject, for certainly the white race is the superior race. If history proves anything at all, it surely establishes the fact of this superiority. It was the white race that emerged from barbaric night and kindled the fires of civilization, and built altars to the unknown God, and established States, and subdued the stubborn earth, and laid off cities, and raised temples, and crossed the great sea, and manacled nature, and made machinery do the work of myriads of men, and passed the earth's central line, and pierced the frozen loins of both poles, and discovered gunpowder, by which the tides of barbaric power were forever made innocuous, and put the steam monster to work on the sea and the land, and traversed space with the velocity of the wind, and subdued the subtle electricity of the earth to do their errands, and made the sun a most cunning artist, and discovered the printing-press, making thought visible, transmissible, and eternal, and swept the heavens with their instruments, and became familiar with the movements of the planets, and sanctified the charities of domestic life, and created a spiritual existence, and ascended to the stars on the wings of poetry, and pursued thought into its most abstract recesses, and gave the world saints and martyrs and heroes and statesmen and poets and orators and philosophers. Indeed, the history of civilization is the history of the white race. But when we turn to the African race, what a melancholy blank is their existence! For ever dwelling in Cimmerian darkness, no flashes of Promethean fire, of the earth earthy, the car of their progress never for an instant drawn by the fiery-footed steeds of the sun, their being has been opaque and material, without the life of the soul, never advancing, but always, from century to century, most perversely stationary. But it is treason to our race to compare it with the African. There is no comparison; it is mind and matter, light and darkness, Hyperion to a Satyr.

Let us briefly examine the history of that portion of this race which has had the advantage of coming in contact with white civilization. In Hayti, their national existence ever since they rose upon the French and ran riot in fiendish murder, has been sad in the extreme, a prolonged despotism, and the lingering death of industrial, social and institutional life. In Mexico and the Central and South American States where

the slaves were emancipated, their constant tendency has been downward. And what is the lesson taught by Jamaica? Of all examples of emancipation this is the most instructive. The slaves in Jamaica had the advantage of contact with English civilization, their emancipation was preceded by a period of apprenticeship pupilage, it was carried out in profound peace by those who favored the policy, the planters received compensation, by which means the planters were furnished with capital to give employment to the labor of the country; the island itself was but little less than an earthly paradise, with a soil of the most astonishing fertility, with a climate running from the season of perpetual roses, tempered by constant ocean breezes to the eternal spring of the mountains. A very fairy land of perpetual beauty. The place, the time, the circumstances were all as favorable as possible to the success of the experiment, and what has been the result? Failure the most lamentable, disappointment the most extreme. But as we consider the experience of Jamaica to be the most instructive event in history as to the capability of the emancipated slaves, we will not let the matter rest on our own assertion, but will cite some evidence on the subject. We cite from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, which, from the place of its publication, could not be supposed to have any sympathy with slavery or prejudice against the free blacks.

Since 1850 the decline (in value of lands) has been rapid—there can be little doubt that the difference in value, since the prosperous days of Jamaica, amounts to at least 80 per cent. For many once valuable estates no purchasers could now be found on any terms. It is on record that 231 sugar estates have been abandoned, besides 243 coffee plantations, and 132 grass pens. It is notorious that the paper circulation, which amounted to £258,816 in 1844, has dwindled to £70,000 in 1855. When it is considered that the value of articles exported does not reach one million, it is evident that the estates in the aggregate yield no rental at all.

Hitherto its history, [Jamaica,] since emancipation, has been discouraging to the friends of liberty. The negro, on whom the cultivation of the island depends, has gradually retired from labor, and retrograded in the social scale.

"We can scarcely blame the negro for following the bent of his inclination; but it is evident that under these circumstances, unless there is a large and immediate supply of immigrants, all society will come to a speedy end, and the island become a second Hayti.

Ridges, overgrown with guava bushes, mark the site of the corn fields; rank vegetation fills the court yard, and even bursts through the once hospitable roof. A curse seems to have fallen on the land, as if this generation were atoning for the sins of the past. Wealth and intelligence are leaving the country;

even now, (1856), it is impossible to fill up the number of the Legislative Council. The white and mulatto races are inimical to each other. The blacks incline first to one side and then to the other. The careless treatment of children by the negroes, and their almost invariable repugnance to pay doctors' fees, prevent the natural rate of increase.

The criminal returns of this population are remarkably favorable.

VALUE OF EXPORTS.

1809.....	£3,033,234.
1854.....	932,316.

Largest sugar crop was in 1805, which exceeded 150,000 hhds; that of 1856 had fallen to 20,000 hhds—*Encyclopædia Britannica*, 8th Edition, article "Jamaica."

The failure of the African race, even after it has had the benefit of contact with civilization, we think is too clear for argument.

We think, therefore, we may safely assume, that if it were a new question whether four millions of Africans should be brought into the South, instead of that number of the white race, the answer would almost universally be in the negative. But an abstract consideration of which is the more desirable race does not meet the case before us fully. It is not merely a question as to which is the most desirable element of population, but another question comes in of the first importance, the objection arising from the antagonism of two widely different races living intermingled on the same soil. History is full of the illustrations of the evils arising from the antagonism of diverse races. In Spain, the antagonism between the Latin race and the Moorish was so ardent, that it only ended with the expulsion of the Moors. In Hungary the Magyars and the Slavonic races are widely separated from each other. In Europe, for ages, the Jews have been the objects of persecution by the other races. In Poland a gulf separates the natives from the Russians. In Ireland the Celtic and Anglo-Saxon races have for centuries remained apart from each other. The oppressions, so long practiced on Ireland, grew out of this difference of races. For a long period of their histories, the French and English people, were objects of special aversion to each other. It was only at a comparatively recent period that the Highlanders of Scotland could assimilate themselves, in any degree, to the rest of the British Empire. A tendency to a wild life in their blood kept them long a distinct people, and enabled the son and grandson of James II. to disturb the tranquillity of the British Empire. Those who are familiar with the early history of England will remember what a gulf remained a long time between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons. In our own history this antagonism of races has been most strikingly manifested in the history of the decadence of the Aborigines

of this country. Driven before the advancing Anglo-Saxons, it was the decree of fate for them to assimilate themselves to their conquerors or perish. They could not do the first, the alternative of natural death is all that has been left them. Soon, of a continent occupied by their ancestors, they will possess nothing but graves. But of all the antagonisms of races, none is so intense as between the Anglo-Saxon and the African. The Anglo-Saxon is proud of his birthright, and he will not mingle his social existence or his blood with the African. This antagonism of races at the South is, beyond everything else, the obstacle in the path of the South. It always has existed, and no legislation can change it. Its evil effects only come fully into play when the law pronounces an equality, which the instincts of the superior race refuse to acknowledge. We submit then, that this antagonism of races at the South furnishes a powerful argument for their separation. In acting upon this matter, we are not acting for to-day, but for all the future. What we should desire, is to give to the South its highest material, moral and intellectual development. To attain this great object, we should have the South occupied by the superior race, that is the white race. We should endeavor to avert the infinite evils through all coming time, of the occupation of the South by two discordant races. Evils which in time will render it difficult to preserve order—difficult to preserve republican institutions, and which may be cause of great weakness in a foreign war.

We should remember that the time will come when the white race of the United States will be sufficiently numerous to occupy all the territory of the United States. When that time comes suppose the beautiful South, "the land of the olive and vine," the Italy of this continent, with the fatal gift of beauty, is occupied by twenty or thirty millions of blacks, are the millions of white people, who will be needing homes, to be thrown forth into the barren and icy deserts of the continent. We should think this a dangerous course. Oh, what beautiful homes, fairy bowers of bliss, could be obtained at the South now for the merest song; but few wish to go there with the black cloud of Africanism impending over it.

In the interest of the African race, we should desire their removal where they may escape the antagonism of a superior race.

In every point of view, then, in which we can look at this subject, if we consider the interest of the white race at the South, the interest and security of the whole country, the increasing millions at the North who will need homes, the interest of the blacks whose future could be relieved from the antagon-

ism of another race in juxtaposition, we are justified in the opinion that the true policy is the removal of the blacks. We do not propose to have this undertaken immediately—the present condition of the country justifies delay. It may be objected that this scheme of colonizing the blacks is impracticable. We admit the difficulty of removing four millions of blacks at once. The plan we suggest is to remove them gradually. Let all of both sexes be removed as they arrive at the age of puberty. This would be very little over one hundred thousand for the first year, and in a few years this number would be much lessened. The number arriving at puberty would, after a few years, rapidly diminish, and be constantly decreasing. By pursuing this plan, in fifty years the African race would pass off the stage, without the trouble of removing the old people. It may be said this colonization would cost something. Undoubtedly it would, but the advantages of it would be incalculable. We are satisfied the increased productiveness of the South, as the ingress of the whites took the place of the colonized blacks, would more than pay the expenses of removal. As regards the place to which the blacks should be taken, we would prefer some place outside of the United States, so they could be entirely to themselves. All things considered, Cuba seems to us the best place for them. Slavery must soon die out in Cuba, and being no longer profitable, Spain will be willing to sell. The island of Cuba would suit the blacks admirably. It is immensely productive and salubrious. Its proximity to the United States is another great advantage. If Cuba could not be obtained, then any good country not too remote. Any place rather than Africa, which is too remote and pestilential. This colony should be under the protection of the United States, and every kindness and generosity should be extended to them. If they worked out their mission successfully, all humanity would rejoice. If they failed, it would be but another link to the chain of preceding facts, proving that the black race cannot maintain itself when left alone.

A few words on the effects of Export Duties, and we will draw to a close our observations, already too extended. The fathers of the Republic expressly denied to Congress the power of laying export duties. The chief reason of this was, they were afraid such duties might be used oppressively to particular sections. There was great wisdom in their distrust on this point. Suppose an export duty were laid on ice. Ice being essentially a northern product, the South would of course be exempt. Let us see the effect of an export duty on cotton. It is proposed by some to levy 10 cents per lb. on cotton. Suppose cotton is selling at 30 cents per lb., unless cotton rises

to 40 cents per lb., the producer of cotton is the loser. Will cotton rise to 40 cents? It is not to be supposed it will. If we suppose the price 30 cents without any export duty, this price of 30 cents may be assumed to be its fair value in the markets of the world, the result of the amount of cotton produced everywhere, including the United States, and the demand for it. This tax of 10 cents per pound would fall only on the portion of the cotton supply raised in the United States. All the cotton that is raised elsewhere than in the United States, can, as the market price proves, be raised profitably at 30 cents per lb. An export tax of 10 cents per lb. cannot permanently raise the price of foreign cotton 10 cents per lb. over and above the point of a fair and remunerative profit. Two causes will prevent such a great rise as this. The first is the increased amount of foreign cotton which will be produced, and the inevitable tendency of the manufacturers to supply the place of cotton with some other and cheaper fabric. As an export tax on cotton cannot raise the price to the extent of the tax, it must fall on the producer. None can be less able to pay an undue share of taxes than the cultivator of cotton at the South. They are poor indeed, with scarcely any capital but their land. It is surprising, too, that those who favor the tax should be the special friends of the free blacks, whose only immediate hope of profitable employment is in the high price of cotton. If that is struck down, a most serious blow is struck at the prosperity of the blacks.

Another objection to export duties on cotton is the stimulus it will be to the foreign production of cotton. The increase of the cotton culture in India has been a favorite policy of the English government. We would be playing into their hands most generously.

We should regard the imposition of export duties as one of the most disastrous measures that could be adopted, and we sincerely hope the Constitution may not be tampered with in this particular, but remain as it always has been, forbidding such duties.

ART. III.—MR. McCULLOCH'S REPORT.

It is with unfeigned sorrow that amid the peans which on all sides arise from the public press in praise of the Secretary of the Treasury's Report, we are compelled almost alone to dissent from most of the conclusions sought to be established in this document; but a sense of justice to the community will not permit us to do otherwise. Again and again have we lowered the standard by which we have sought to measure the calibre

of the reports which had issued from this department since the war began, hoping by that means to permit ourselves, at some time or other, to look upon them as ably drawn and valuable State papers. In this we have been disappointed. To say nothing of Mr. Fessenden's feeble and disordered report of 1864, the reports of the Treasury Department, including the present one, are all characterized by an evident tone of insincerity, and by faulty and inconclusive reasoning on topics vitally important to the immediate interests of a vast community. As for Mr. Fessenden's Report, it was from beginning to end little else than a mortifying exposure of its author's official unsuitableness and incapacity.

The impression we derive from Mr. McCulloch's Report is, that while its author perfectly well understands the true position of the government and the people, as regards the pending questions connected with the public finances—the currency, the revenue, and the National Banking System, he has preferred rather to smooth over by superficial argument certain of these questions which are in their very nature irreconcilable, than to boldly settle them by negating some, and affirming others. Thus, while he affirms that “it is the crowning glory of the Constitution that this great war has been waged and closed without the powers of the Government being enlarged, or its relations to the States being changed,” he denies that Congress has any Constitutional right to issue legal tender notes, because its authority to do so, to use his own words, “can only be found in the unwritten law which sanctions whatever the representatives of the people, whose duty it is to maintain the Government against its enemies, may consider in a great emergency necessary to be done.” The two sentences quoted are not only in direct antagonism to each other, but the latter one contains a political heresy too fatal to the freedom of a republican community to be suffered to pass uncontradicted. There is no such thing as “unwritten law” from which the representatives of this people can find authority to legislate for them. Article X of the Amendments distinctly asserts that “the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people. And even the people, unless in the manner provided by the Constitution itself, have no power to change this organic agreement. The purpose of this was to prevent usurpation of power, for Constitutional amendments, secure publicity to proposed changes, and enable the whole people to pass upon them.

This temporizing method pursued by the Secretary, has led him throughout his entire Report into the affirmation of politico-

economical errors of such importance, and with so much apparent sincerity, that if continued any longer will lay him open to the suspicion of being somewhat more ingenuous concerning them, than would be consistent with his reputation as a minister of finance. For instance, he speaks in one place of the "standard of value" introduced by Congress; meaning thereby the present paper currency. Now it is a familiar fact to all students of political economy that no standard of value exists, that none has ever been made, and that none can ever be made. Rather than be led into a digression on this point, let us admit instead of being "the relation between two efforts exchanged," as Bastiat defines it, that Value is the relation between the *results* of two efforts exchanged. To measure this relation mankind have unanimously agreed to employ the precious metals; but it is notorious that the measure itself is constantly changing its size, and is absolutely no standard at all. Gold is much more plentiful now than it was twenty years ago, and will consequently measure less of almost any other product than it did then. Neither is wheat a standard; for wheat can be much more cheaply produced by the improved processes of to-day, than it could be twenty years ago. Neither is labor a standard; for labor becomes more productive as mankind increases in intelligence and skill. If, therefore, neither labor, nor wheat, nor gold, are "standards" of value, with what degree of propriety can a Secretary of the Treasury speak of an "irredeemable paper currency," as he himself calls it in the very same sentence, as a standard of value?

Again, throughout the entire Report, occur passages which tacitly assent to that ridiculous and long since exploded error, called the "balance of trade theory." On the very first page of the document the country is felicitated on its having raised means to meet the expenses of a protracted and very costly war "without foreign loans." On p. 6, a studied regret is expressed that the United States "now buy of other nations *too generally*." On p. 9, the Secretary believes that "there are no indications of real and permanent prosperity in our large importation of foreign fabrics," and in a further tone of regret he reluctantly admits that "a foreign debt is being created." On p. 13, a diminished importation of foreign articles is deemed "an advantage." On p. 16, it is considered desirable that the debt should be "kept at home." On p. 26, it is not deemed desirable that our securities should be held out of the United States; and finally, on the same page, every tax-payer is believed to be "personally interested in having the public debt placed at home."

Without questioning either the truth or the good taste of the

assertion, that means have been raised to carry on the war without foreign loans, it would be a great matter of gratification to know from what treatise on Political Economy the Secretary has derived these extraordinary notions concerning the disadvantages of large importations, and the misfortune of being able to borrow money abroad. The excess of its imports over its exports is now well understood to be a measure of a nation's profits on its foreign commerce, and to possess good credit in the money markets of the world, should scarcely, at least in these enlightened days, be regarded as a misfortune. If, during ten years of foreign trade our imports have been 3,000 millions, and our exports but 2,000 millions, it is very evident that we have profited 1,000 millions by the operation. If, during the same period, we imported but 2,000 millions worth of goods and bullion, and gave 3,000 millions worth of goods and bullion in return for them, it is equally evident that we have lost 1,000 millions by the affair. Again, if Europe holds 500 millions of our bonds, which are worth in our own markets but 66 cents gold on the dollar, and has given us 333 millions in gold for them, it is very evident that we have gained by the operation. 1st, because if we did not gain we should not have effected it. 2d, because while the European bondholder can only reap the benefit of the yearly six per cent., which, in the shape of interest, accrues upon the bonds, we, on the contrary, may, and do, reap the advantage of employing the *entire capital* so lent, and employing it, too, in industries which yield a far higher annual return than six per cent.; 3d, because we are willing to repeat the operation on the same terms as often as we have the chance, an evidence of which is, that the Treasury Department has more than once within the past few years employed agents to go to Europe for the purpose of extending the market for United States bonds; and no longer ago than last summer, one of them, Mr. Lanier of this city, was so empowered by Mr. McCulloch himself. The expense of sending these agents abroad are included in the expenditures of 1865, under the head of Miscellaneous. Furthermore, the new Loan Bill lately introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. Morrill, and evidently with the concurrence of the Secretary, provides that the bonds which it authorizes "may be sold, and the principal and interest may be made payable either in the United States or in Europe," and that "the principal and interest of the bonds which may be made payable in Europe shall be payable in the coin or currency of the country in Europe in which they may be made payable."

Official enunciation of such financial sophisms as we have noticed on the part of an American Secretary of the Treasury,

is much to be regretted; and it is to be hoped that the attention we have drawn to them, will have the effect of inducing greater care in this respect in the preparation of the future reports of the Department.

These sops to Cerberus, these panderings to what are supposed to be popular prejudices concerning foreign capital and foreign fabrics, are coupled, side by side, in the Secretary's Report, with bait of another kind,—bait made of the best material, and glittering with hopes and anticipations impossible to be fulfilled, and advice impossible to be followed. For instance, "an irredeemable paper currency may be a necessity," (*why* so is not explained, nor do we suppose it ever will be, either by Mr. McCulloch or anybody else,) "but it can scarcely fail, if long continued, to be a calamity to any people." Again, "if the measure of value is a convertible currency, and trade and exchanges are left to the *natural laws* that govern them, settlements take place promptly and without embarrassment to business." Again, "the evil is not at present beyond the control of legislation, but it is daily increasing, and, if not speedily checked, will, at no distant day, culminate in wide-spread disaster. The remedy, and the only remedy within the control of Congress, is, in the opinion of the Secretary, to be found in the reduction of the currency." Again, "it is better that the banks should be embarrassed now, than bankrupted hereafter." Speaking of the public debt he says, "its influences are anti-republican. It adds to the power of the Executive by increasing federal patronage." Finally, he remarks that "various plans have been suggested for the payment of the debt; but the Secretary sees no way of accomplishing it but by an *increase of the national income beyond the national expenditures*. In a matter of so great importance as this, *experiments are out of place*."

Bait for larger fish than would submit to be entangled in the net of sophisms previously noticed—baits garnished with such anticipations as these:

It has been estimated by one who has made this subject a study, that the products of agriculture, manufactures, mining, mechanic arts, commerce, fisheries and forests, in the year 1850 were at 28.9 per cent. of the value of the real and personal property of the United States. A similar calculation makes the products of 1860 26.8 per cent. of the wealth of the country in that year, as fixed by the census returns. In the calculation submitted, the annual products of capital and industry are taken, for convenience, at 25 per cent. of the capital wealth of the country, and the capital of each decennial year of the thirty that our national debt may run before its extinguishment by the application of two hundred millions per annum to the payment of its principal and interest, is here estimated upon the basis of its amount and increase as given by the census of 1860. In the year 1860 the real and personal property of the Union was valued (slaves excluded) at fourteen thousand one hundred and eighty-three

millions of dollars. Of this amount the States lately in insurrection held three thousand four hundred and sixty-seven millions, being an increase upon the like property in 1850 of 139.7 per cent. The property of the loyal States was valued at ten thousand seven hundred and sixteen millions, an increase of 125.6 per cent. over 1850; together, averaging a decennial increase of 129.7 per cent.

Now, taking the increase of wealth in the loyal States in the ten years from 1860 to 1870 at 125 per cent., we have, as their capital in 1870, twenty-four thousand one hundred and eleven millions; and if we put the wealth of the other States at the same figure as in 1860, without allowing anything for increase, we have a capital for 1870 of twenty-seven thousand five hundred and seventy-eight millions. This sum gives us the product of the year at six thousand eight hundred and ninety four and a half millions, upon which a payment on the debt of two hundred millions is 2.9 per cent. If we add but 25 per cent. to the wealth of 1860 for the States lately in insurrection, as their probable valuation in 1870, the charge of two hundred millions upon the products of that year will be 2.81 per cent. But, allowing all that can be claimed in this respect, and taking the lowest estimate for 1870 as the basis for calculating the wealth and products of the year 1880, 125 per cent. increase in this period gives a capital of sixty-two thousand and fifty millions, and a product of fifteen thousand five hundred and twelve millions, upon which sum a charge of two hundred millions falls to 1.29 per cent. In 1890, the wealth, estimated at an increase of only 100 per cent. upon that of 1880, gives the year's products at thirty-one thousand and twenty-five millions, upon which two hundred millions amounts to only 0.644 per cent., or less than two-thirds of one per cent., and in the year 1900 the tax upon the products of the year would fall to 0.322 per cent., or less than one third of one per cent.

To this charge upon the resources of the country if there be added one hundred and forty millions of 1870 for all other expenditures, one hundred and fifty millions in 1880, one hundred and sixty millions in 1890, and one hundred and seventy millions in 1900, the estimated total expenditure will be 4.93 per cent. of the products of capital and industry in 1870, 2.26 per cent in 1880, 1.17 per cent. in 1890, and barely seven-tenths of one per cent. in 1900. Or, in general statement, the total estimated charges of the national government for the payment of the debt in thirty years, and all other ordinary expenses, begin at less than 5 per cent. of the resources of the country, and end in seven-tenths of one per cent.

The fallaciousness of these calculations is already familiar to the reading public; but will be once more demonstrated as we proceed.

As a commentary upon the Secretary's expressed repugnance to a further increase of Federal patronage, and to the conviction that financial experiments are out of place, and that the only way to liquidate, is by way of overplus—we make the following extracts from his report:

The Secretary has already recommended that he be authorized to sell bonds of the United States, bearing interest at a rate not exceeding six per cent., for the purpose of retiring treasury notes and United States notes. He further recommends that he be authorized to sell, in his discretion, bonds of a similar character to meet any deficiency for the present fiscal year, to reduce the temporary loan by such an amount as he may deem advisable, to pay the certificates of indebtedness as they mature, and also to take up any portion of the debt maturing prior to 1869 that can be advantageously retired. It is not probable that it will be advisable, even if it could be done without pressing them upon the market, to sell a much larger amount of bonds within the present or the next fiscal year than will be necessary to meet any deficiency of the treasury.

to pay the past-due and maturing obligations of the government, and a part of the temporary loan, and to retire an amount of the compound interest notes and United States notes sufficient to bring back the business of the country to a healthier condition. But no harm can result from investing the Secretary with authority to dispose of bonds, if the condition of the market will justify it, in order to anticipate the payment of those obligations that must soon be provided for.

Authority is here asked which will virtually make the Treasury Department the sole dispenser of wealth and poverty to every living being within the country. But as if this obvious and flagrant increase of Federal patronage were not "sufficient for the day," he makes, in connection with the gold and silver mines of the far West, a further recommendation of like nature:

In this connection it may be advisable for Congress to consider whether the prosperity of the treasure-producing districts would not be increased, and the convenience of miners greatly promoted, by the establishment of an assay office in every mining district from which an annual production of gold and silver amounting to ten millions of dollars is actually obtained.

It is the old story; and we must be prepared to expect that public officers will not readily lose that lust for more and more power and patronage, until the holding of that power and the dispensing of that patronage is either wholly refused by the people, or rendered dangerous and unprofitable to the holders and dispensers of it.

Briefly reviewing that portion of the Secretary's Report which attempts to handle the politico-economical questions that now agitate the public mind, we unwillingly confess to a feeling of deep disappointment at its disingenuous and narrow tone. Nothing is concluded, nothing resolved; and its most salient points are recommendations for more power and an increased patronage for the department over which he has been called to preside.

Turning now to the figures and estimates of the public debt and the revenue, we reach that portion of the Secretary's Report in which, and in which only, he is fully at home and equal to the duties which devolve upon him by law. We have no hesitation in saying, in this respect, that Mr. McCulloch has fully maintained his reputation as a financier; and had he confined himself to this specialty and left political economy alone, his report would have not only been the more valuable in consequence, but would have been open to no objections from the most fastidious critic. For, like a grand cathedral organ, whose deafening crashes stun and terrify the impotent performer, but which to the accomplished player yields only sweet and congruous sounds, Political Economy, when touched upon by the

expert, furnishes harmonious laws for the guide and government of mankind; while if it is dabbled in by the neophyte, it gives forth nought but contradiction and discord. The organ that the Secretary has essayed to play upon, has evidently too many stops and pedals, which he has not yet discovered, to yield to his present skill. And two of its most important ones, called by foreigners, *laissez faire* and *laissez passer*, require a longer study to be reached, than, judging from his present humor, the Secretary will ever devote to the instrument.

EXPENDITURES.—On the 1st of July, 1864, the public debt was \$1,740,690,489; on the 1st of July, 1865, it was \$2,682,593,026; on the 1st of July, 1866, it is estimated to be \$2,920,744,384; and on the 1st of July, 1867, it is estimated to be \$2,809,061,566. This makes the deficit for the fiscal year 1865, \$941,902,537; and for the fiscal year 1866, \$112,194,947; and looks for a surplus for the fiscal year 1867, amounting to \$111,682,818. We place the actual expenditures of the Government for the fiscal year 1865, side by side with the estimate made in December, 1864, by Secretary Fessenden:

EXPENDITURES OF 1865.		
	Mr. Fessenden's estimate.	Actual.
Civil service,	No particulars	\$ 44,765,558
Pensions and Indians,	were given	14,258,575
War Department,	in Mr. Fes-	1,081,323,361
Navy Department,	senden's re-	122,567,776
Interest on public debt,	port.	77,397,712
Total, exclusive of redemption of public debt,	\$895,729,135	\$1,290,312,982

The difference between Mr. Fessenden's estimate and the actual expenditures, was nearly four hundred millions of dollars! This alone should satisfy the public that Mr. Fessenden, as Secretary of the Treasury, was not "the right man in the right place," and was sufficient to justify the popular gratification which followed his resignation of the office.

The actual expenditure for the first quarter of the fiscal year 1866, and the estimated expenditures for the three remaining quarters of the year, are given by Mr. McCulloch as follows:

	First quarter of 1866 actual.	Three remaining quarters of 1866 estimated.	Total for 1866 estimated.
Civil service,	\$10,571,460	\$32,994,052	\$43,565,512
Pensions and Indians,	6,024,241	12,256,790	18,281,031
War Department,	165,369,237	307,788,750	473,157,987
Navy Department,	16,520,669	35,000,000	51,520,669
Interest on public debt,	36,173,481	96,813,868	132,987,349
Total, exclusive of redemption of public debt,	\$234,659,088	\$484,853,460	\$719,512,548

For a peace footing, these estimates are very heavy. The estimated expenditures for the fiscal year 1867, are as follows :

Civil service.....	\$42,165,599
Pensions and Indians.....	17,609,640
War Department.....	39,017,416
Navy Department.....	43,982,457
Interest on the public debt.....	141,542,069
Total, exclusive of redemption of public debt.....	\$284,317,181

Arranging these estimates in tabular form, and comparing them with the expenditures of previous years, they appear as follows :

Fiscal year.	Civil.	Pen. & Ind.	War.	Navy.	Interest.	Total.
1862	\$21,408,491	\$3,102,985	\$394,365,407	\$42,674,569	\$13,190,324	\$474,744,778
1863	28,253,922	4,216,520	599,298,600	63,211,105	24,729,846	714,709,995
1864	27,505,599	7,517,931	690,791,843	85,738,293	53,685,422	865,234,087
1865	44,765,558	14,258,575	1,031,323,361	122,567,776	77,397,712	1,290,312,982
1866	43,565,512	13,281,031	473,157,987	51,520,669	132,927,349	719,512,548
1867	42,165,599	17,609,640	39,017,416	43,982,457	141,542,069	284,317,181

This comparison is very significant, and the most significant of its many significant features, is the expenditures for the civil service. Previous to the war, the Civil Service cost as follows :

Fiscal year.	Civil list.	Foreign intercourse.	Miscellaneous.	Total civil service.
1859	\$5,913,281	\$ 981,946	\$16,873,771	\$23,768,998
1860	6,077,008	1,146,143	20,708,183	27,931,334
1861	6,074,141	1,147,786	16,026,574	23,248,501
Ag'te for 3 yrs. before the war	\$18,064,430	\$3,275,875	\$53,608,528	\$74,948,833

During the war the Civil Service cost as follows :

Fiscal Year.	Civil List.	Foreign Intercourse.	Miscellaneous.	Total Civil Service.
1862.....	\$5,939,009	\$1,339,710	\$14,129,771	\$21,408,490
1863.....	6,350,618	1,231,413	15,671,890	23,253,921
1864.....	8,059,177	1,290,691	18,155,730	27,505,598
1865.....	10,833,945	1,260,818	32,670,795	44,765,558
Aggregate 4 y'rs dur'g war.	\$31,182,749	\$5,122,632	\$80,628,186	\$116,933,567

Now that the war is over, and the expenditures necessary for the Civil Service suffered to be materially reduced, it is estimated that they will be \$43,565,512 for the fiscal year 1866, and \$42,165,599 for 1867.

Turning to the details of these expenditures, we find that \$23,465,155, or *more than one half* of the \$44,765,558 expended in 1865, was for the following purposes :

For expenses incident to carrying into effect National Loans (commissions to brokers and agents, &c.),	\$6,588,641
For expenses incident to the issue and disposal of \$200,000,000 United States Bonds, (commission to European agents, &c.),	68,825
For expenses incident to an Act to provide a National Currency,	59,882
For expenses of engraving, printing, preparing and issuing United States Treasury Notes, Fractional Notes, and Bonds,	14,522
For detection and bringing to trial persons engaged in counterfeiting, &c.,	46,595
For plates paper, and special dies, and the printing of circulating notes, and expenses necessarily incurred in procuring said notes, including miscellaneous items,	441,250
For purchase of gold coin (Act of March 17, 1862, 1st Section),	5,072,900
Total yearly expenses incurred from the continuance of a paper money system,	\$12,292,615
 For constructing fire-proof vaults, mainly for New York Custom House,	3,750
For do, for Philadelphia Custom House,	50,000
For allowance on drawback, etc.,	679,428
For expenses of collecting the Revenue from Customs,	5,437,490
For re-payment to importers of excess of deposits from unas- certained duties,	2,283,313
For debentures, &c.,	968,815
For refunding duties,	2,425
For debentures and other charges,	21,638
For salaries of special examiners of drugs,	5,748
For additional compensation to collectors, &c.,	246,134
For building Custom Houses, repairs, &c.,	1,069,362
For annual repairs of Marine Hospitals and Custom Houses, \$17,831, say half,	8,915
For unclaimed merchandise,	1,933
For proceeds of sales of goods, wares, etc.,	402
For purchase of steam or sailing Revenue Cutters,	393,187
 Total yearly expenses incurred from the continuance of a Custom House system,	\$11,172,540
 Yearly cost of Paper Money system,	\$12,292,615
Yearly cost of Custom House system,	\$11,172,540
 Aggregate yearly cost of both,	\$23,465,155

Twenty-three and a half millions per annum is a sum of considerable magnitude, even for a people so overflowing with prosperity as we are, and its details are well worth examining.

The yearly cost of the present paper money system is set down at twelve millions! Can this be possible? Less than sixty years ago the *entire* expenditures of the Government did not exceed *eleven* millions per annum; but now we find a million more per annum than this, expended in engraving, printing, and selling paper-money alone! This is an advance in the art of spending money of the most decided character, and did our general progress keep pace with it, there would be no

room for cavil; but we fear that this is very far from being the case.

Regarding the eleven millions which the custom-house system cost the people this year, it is perhaps hardly worth while to make any remark in this place. We simply append a comparison of the nominal and actual amounts received from the custom duties in 1865.

Nominal amount.....	\$84,928,260
Less expenditures, as above.....	11,172,540
Real yield of custom duties for 1865.....	\$73,755,720

This latter sum might be lessened by further items of expense, such as the yearly interest on the custom-house buildings and revenue cutters now employed by the department in the collecting of this tax, as well as the wear and tear, insurance, and other expenses connected with maintaining these necessary adjuncts of the system in servicable order.

We now turn to the statements and estimates of Receipts in the Report.

RECEIPTS.—The actual receipts of the Government during the fiscal year 1865, were as follows:

Balance in Treasury agreeably to warrants, July 1, 1864.....	\$ 96,730,905
Customs.....	84,928,260
Lands.....	996,553
Direct Tax.....	1,200,573
Internal Revenue.....	209,464,215
Miscellaneous.....	32,978,284
Total receipts for 1865.....	\$329,567,885
Balance in Treasury, July 1, 1865.....	\$ 858,309

The actual receipts for the first quarter of 1866, and the estimated receipts for the three remaining quarters, are given as follows:

	First Quarter of 1866, actual.	Three remain- ing quarters of 1866, estimat'd	Total for 1866, estimated.
Customs.....	\$ 47,009,583	\$100,000,000	\$147,009,583
Lands.....	132,890	500,000	632,890
Direct Tax.....	31,111	31,111
Internal Revenue....	96,618,815	175,000,000	271,618,885
Miscellaneous.....	18,393,729	30,000,000	48,393,729
	\$162,186,198	\$305,500,000	\$467,686,198

The balance in the Treasury, on the first of October, 1865, was \$67,158,515.

These estimates, we think, are drawn with care. The pres-

ent tariff, however, will probably yield more than \$147,009,583, customs, provided that no changes are made in it, and that no political or social circumstances may meanwhile tend to affect our foreign commerce.

Thus up to October 1, 1865, there had been received from customs, at all the ports of the United States.....	\$ 47,009,583
From October 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866, there had been received at the port of New York alone, from customs.....	29,581,345
Add one-third more for outports.....	9,860,448
Total for first half of fiscal year 1866.....	\$ 86,451,376
Add one-fourth more than this for last half of fiscal year 1866. [The imports during the last half are usually one-fourth greater than during the first half of the fiscal year. In 1865 they were one-half more.].....	108,064,220
Estimated customs duties for 1866.....	<u>\$194,515,596</u>

One million more, too, might safely be added, we think, for receipts from direct tax.

For the fiscal year 1867, Mr. McCulloch estimates the following receipts:

Customs.....	\$100,000,000
Internal Revenue.....	275,000,000
Lands.....	1,000,000
Miscellaneous.....	20,000,000
Total for the fiscal year 1867.....	<u>\$896,000,000</u>

These estimates we consider low.

Arranged in tabular form, they compare with previous years as follows:

Fiscal year.	Customs.	Lands.	Direct Tax.	Internal revenue.	Miscellaneous	Total.
1862	\$ 49,056,397	\$ 152,203	\$1,795,331	\$ None.	\$ 931,787	\$ 51,935,720
1863	69,059,642	167,617	1,485,108	37,640,787	3,046,615	111,899,764
1864	102,316,153	588,333	475,649	109,741,134	47,511,448	260,632,717
1865	84,928,260	968,553	1,300,573	209,464,215	32,978,284	349,567,885
1866	147,009,583	632,890	31,111	271,618,835	48,348,729	467,666,198
1867	100,000,000	1,000,000	275,000,000	20,000,000	396,000,000

This completes Mr. McCulloch's estimates.

We now proceed to notice those portions of his Report which have relation to special topics connected with the department over which he presides.

LIQUIDATION OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.—On this topic the Secretary has a great deal to say, but nothing that he says indicates more than a very superficial examination into the economical phenomenon of national indebtedness.

If the labor question at the South is settled on terms just to the employer and to the laborer, if the debt is funded at five or

five and a half per cent., *if* two hundred millions annual surplus is derived from the revenue, then, says the Secretary, the debt will be paid off in so many years, months, weeks and days.

If the value of the entire capital of the "Loyal States" in 1860 was 10,716 millions of dollars and of the disloyal States 3,467 millions of dollars; and *if* none of this capital has gone out of the country or depreciated in value, or been sunk by the war, and *if* that portion of it pertaining to the Loyal States shall increase to 24,111 millions in 1870, and that pertaining to the disloyal states shall not increase at all yet not diminish, making the total capital wealth of the country in 1870 to be 27,578 millions of dollars, and *if* the annual *net* product of the country is 25 per cent. on its total capital—then, says the Secretary, two hundred millions a year towards liquidating the debt will amount to a charge of but $2\frac{2}{10}$ per cent. on the yearly resources of the country. "Now if we add but 25 per cent. to the wealth of 1860," continues the Secretary in his milk-maidish rhapsody, "for the States lately in insurrection as their probable value in 1870," then the 200 millions &c. will only be $2\frac{2}{10}$ per cent. &c. Furthermore, *if* the wealth of 1880 should prove to be 125 per cent. more than the wealth of 1870, then the 200 millions &c. will only amount to $1\frac{2}{100}$ per cent. &c. Furthermore, *if* the wealth of 1890 should prove to be "only 100 per cent." more than the wealth of 1880, then the year's product will be 31,025 millions of dollars upon which the 200 millions &c. will only be a charge of 0.644 per cent. Lastly, *if* the year 1900 should find the country 100 per cent. richer than the year 1890 then the 200 millions &c. will only be 0.322 per cent. on its yearly product, &c.

"These estimates [!]" he adds, "and the basis upon which they rest are sustained by the result of English experience. . . . It is true that many circumstances may occur to prevent the accomplishment of these anticipated results, [we should think so], but the estimates [!] have been made upon what are regarded as reliable data, and are well calculated to encourage Congress in levying taxes, and the people in paying them."

Now, we have not the slightest hesitation in saying that, scarcely any of these assumptions have any ground whatever to stand upon, that they are for the most part totally unlikely to happen, and for the rest totally impossible; and that neither English experience nor any other experience affords them any support. They are the dreams of a madman, and for the credit of the country should never have appeared in print.

The labor question at the South may be settled; but that the debt may be funded at five or even five and a half per cent., an amount of legislation directly in antagonism to that

which has occupied Congress for the past four years, and is still occupying it, would have to be gone through with, that renders the event totally beyond the range of the most remote chance. And regarding the probability of an annual surplus of 200 millions, while 300,000 fundholders, of which class Congress is largely composed, are exempted from taxation, and while 500,000 placemen are maintained in office by the Government—to say nothing of a standing army of 80,000 men, which is now being provided for by act of Congress—we think it entirely out of the question. The fundholders will forget their ultimate interests and look to their immediate ones, and their immediate ones are six per cent. in preference to five and a half, and no taxation in preference to any taxation. The placemen will not forget *any* of their interests, either present or remote, and all of these point to plenty of governmental power and patronage; and without the management of a large debt, and all its demonstrated accompaniments, governmental power and patronage will be lessened, and official patriots cannot flourish and increase.

So much for the Secretary's first chain of contingencies. His second one is hardly entitled to serious attention.

The assumed valuations of the entire capital of the country in 1850 and 1860 are from the census reports, and even if absolutely correct on the days they were taken, which we deny, are partly inapplicable to the very next days after, and entirely inapplicable, as a means of comparison, to a time ten years later. A great portion of these valuations (some three-fourths) are made up by computing vast territories of land at so much per acre, which computations while they might have been measurably correct on certain days, might also have been wholly wrong and inadmissible on any other days. Land rises and falls in value like other things, and it rises very much during a period of peace and active immigration, and falls very much upon the happening of civil war.

Another large portion of the valuations assumed are made up of movable wealth—money and goods—and these move in and out of a country as liberty, justice and peace, invite; or restriction, inequality and war repel. To what *extent* these movements took place since 1860 we shall not attempt to decide, but the market rates of exchange during the war furnish a guide as to their *direction*, the reliability of which we imagine no one will be inclined to dispute.

From three to five thousand millions' worth of property was destroyed on both sides during the war. This insignificant trifle the Secretary takes no notice of. Towns were burned, farms laid waste, railroads destroyed, ships sunk, material of

war used up, and four years' labor of a million and a half of men, reckoning both sides, entirely wasted; yet no allowance is made for all this loss by the Secretary.

Following his tissue of *ifs*, we deny that the yearly net product of this country, or that of any civilized country under the sun, is 25 per cent. upon its capital wealth. If there are any other industries in this country but such monopolies as are suffered to exist in New England, which net 25 per cent. to those engaged in them, we are ignorant of the fact. We know that neither the uncultivated nor the cultivated lands throughout the country increase in value at this rate; we know that farming neither in the North, the West, nor the South, yields any such profit, we know that no commercial occupation yields it, that no laborer earns it above his expenditures; in short, that no industry whatever, which is open, even measurably, to competition, affords 25 per cent. per annum net profit on the capital employed in it.

If individuals generally cannot net 25 per cent. per annum on the capital they employ in business, how can the capital wealth of the country, which is simply an aggregation of the capital wealth of the individuals who live or do business in it, increase at that rate? If out of 30,000,000 persons owning 14,183 millions of dollars worth of property, only 3,000,000 persons owning but 1,863 millions of dollars worth,* can net 25 per cent. per annum on their capital, while the rest cannot net over 7 per cent., by what means, outside of the Secretary's imagination, can the entire capital of the whole number be made to yield an annual net product of 25 per cent.? And if it is not of the *net* product, but of the *gross* product that the Secretary is speaking, what relevancy has it to the argument, so long as its relation to the net product is neither ascertained nor assumed, and seeing that a gross product may be a loss instead of a gain?

Between 1850 and 1860, wars and other disturbances in Europe drove the population and the capital of European countries to our own, and these causes largely added to our population, and our wealth; but the same circumstances may never exist again, or, if they do, may exist with mitigated influence, and the results of course will tally with them and the influence they may exert.

We are much mistaken in the estimate of the character of our people, if, after clearly understanding the value of the

* The population of New England in 1860 was 3,135,233, and its capital wealth was, according to the census, \$1,863,843,765. In the text we have assumed that 25 per cent. net profit was earned upon the whole of this capital, but it is hardly necessary to remind the reader that but a small portion of it affords such gains. Outside of New England, with a few exceptions here and there, we know of no permanent investments of capital in this country which yield 25 per cent. per annum net gain.

"reliable data" thus furnished us by the Secretary, they should, as he trusts, derive any additional encouragement from them to pay taxes; and we respectfully warn the Secretary against the danger of basing any fresh legislation upon this hope.

EXEMPTION OF GOVERNMENT BONDS FROM TAXATION.—

On the question of exempting the government bonds from taxation, the Secretary speaks very warmly. He regards such exemption as right and beneficial, and prophesies disaster if it is not maintained. While, for reasons already hinted at, we entertain no apprehensions whatever that the exemption will *not* be entertained, Political Economy teaches us that such discriminations are fatal to the well-being of any community. They tend to cultivate a race of fundholders to lord it over the people, and to oppose every effort they may make to free themselves from the double incubus of debt and its twin-brother, governmental power. Practically it has no such bearing as that which the Secretary claims for it. A very large portion of the permanently funded debt of this country is, or will soon be, held abroad, and will not, in any event, be subject to taxation. The system, as it stands, is simply a protective measure to the fundholders at home, and as such is entirely anti-republican in its nature and its tendency.

THE TAX-SYSTEM.—Upon this topic the Secretary opens with the following remarks:

The present system of internal revenue is one of the results of the war. It was framed under circumstances of pressing necessity, affording little opportunity for careful and accurate investigation of the sources of revenue. Its success, however, has exceeded the anticipations of its authors, and is a most honorable testimonial to their wisdom, and to the patriotism of the people who have so cheerfully submitted to its burdens.

With the restoration of peace, industry is again returning to its former channels, and a revision of the system now becomes important to accommodate it to the changed and changing condition of the country.

Every complicated system of taxation opens the way to mistakes, abuses and deceptions. Temptations to dishonesty and fraud are placed before the revenue officers and the taxpayers, and both are often thereby demoralized. Honest men, who pay their taxes in full, are injured, if not ruined, by the ingenuity of those who successfully evade their share of the public burdens.

The multiplicity of objects at present subject to taxation is one of the most serious objections to the present system. Many of these yield little revenue, while its collection is troublesome to the collector, and irritating and offensive to the taxpayers. This multiplicity also involves as many temptations to fraud, and as many difficult questions for decision, as the objects from which large revenue is derived.

To impose taxes judiciously, so as to obtain revenue without repressing industry, is one of the highest and most difficult duties devolved upon Congress. Taxation which in one year may be scarcely felt may the next year be oppressive; and that which may not be burdensome to those who are well established in business may be fatal to those just commencing. Every branch of industry has its infancy, and ought to be encouraged by liberal legislation. Whatever of industry or enterprise is destroyed, by injudicious taxation or otherwise, is a damage to the national welfare.

Heavy taxation may drive capital from our shores, or prevent its employment in the manner most advantageous to the country, and thus prevent that demand for labor which is the best security for its proper reward.

The taxation which is now extremely productive may in a few years become unproductive, or engender a spirit of opposition and discontent which may endanger the national credit.

Were the recommendations which follow this signally felicitous preface, in keeping with it, this portion of the Report might fully make amends for the faults so obvious elsewhere; but here again the Secretary's abstract and concrete are at fearful war with each other, and reconciliation is totally out of the question. He continues:

It is important, therefore, that our revenue system should be frequently and carefully revised, in order that it may be accommodated to the habits and character of the people, to the industry of the country, to labor and capital, to wages at home and wages abroad. It is also of the highest importance that there should be a careful adjustment of our internal to our external revenue system.

All systems of taxation are bad, and all have various consequences besides the due elimination of revenue—consequences which legislators never perceive, consequences which warp constitutions and bend the industry of communities into unprofitable channels, consequences which promote monopolies, engender social castes, break up equalization, and weaken national attachments—but the worst of all systems, is a changeable one. Let a certain sum of revenue be raised by any conceivable method, and if that method is left unaltered for a certain length of time, the revenue so raised will equalize itself among all industries; but as often as any revision is accomplished, this equalization will be disturbed, and the prices of all commodities will fluctuate anew, until some permanent level is finally attained. Far better would it be that the present system were retained as it is, than altered in any respect, except in the way of reduced taxes; but this, while frequent changes exalt the consequence and the power of legislators, is a boon too great to be hoped for. Some forty odd customs tariffs has this country seen since its organization under constitutional government, and it is pretty safe to predict that its days of revenue vicissitudes are not yet ended. Congress is as pliant as ever, the lobby is increasing in power, and the people, God help them, are a set of the jolliest Mark Tapleys that ever existed.

But though perhaps indifferent to the fluctuations of prices, and to the gambling in merchandise, which any revision of the revenue will inevitably set a-going, and to the unexpected and undeserved fortunes, and the equally unexpected and undeserved losses, which it will inevitably confer, the people cannot

afford to face that positive and collective loss, that loss not to individuals, but to the entire community, which must unavoidably flow from any attempt to adjust the internal to the external revenue system, such as the Secretary thoughtlessly advises. Should any such adjustment take place, it should by all means be made the other way. Our tariff should be adjusted to our internal tax system; because by so doing every foreign consumer of our products would be compelled, in the prices he paid for those products, to share our burden of taxation with us, whether he desired it or not; while, by the opposite method, we not only lose this advantage, but from the incidental protection which it affords to unprofitable production at home, we run a large risk of losing his custom altogether.

For instance, there are some 75,000,000 of working-men in Europe. Of this number not over one-half are actively engaged in production, for want of a market for their products. Their home markets are glutted, and foreign countries, our own included, shut them out. Local attachments, national prejudices, laws of tenure, individual poverty, and other causes keep them at home, and prevent them from emigrating; and there they remain, generation after generation, wearing out useless lives, and adding nothing to the world's wealth. Suppose now our tariff was removed altogether, and that at once a new and vast market was opened to their industry. Would they not gladly supply us with a thousand commodities which we desire, and which they can produce cheaper than we can, and take in return the corn which our Iowa farmers now burn in their stoves for fuel, and which the peasantry of Europe are famishing for—and would they not take it, too, even though a portion of our internal taxes clung to it, seeing that if even they did not profit both ways by the transaction, they would at least profit one way, and also find the much needed employment they now seek in vain? Would they not gladly exchange their cloths, their fruits, their wines, their coal, their hardware, and their crockery, for our bacon and lard, our cod-fish and mackerel, our buckwheat and Bourbon whiskey, our petroleum and cotton, our rice and buffalo hides, our corn brooms and plug tobacco, our sewing-machines and printing-presses, our clipper ships and apple parers, our six-shooters and patent skates, our Yankee notions, Western cereals and peltries, and Southern field and forest products? In a word, would not the products which were peculiar to each continent be exchanged with profit to both sides, and yet carry with them their due share of taxes to fall upon the final consumer?

In the face of this manifest advantage we are asked to ignore it altogether, and to plunge deeper than we have ever gone

yet into the darkness and the narrowness of Protection—for this is the meaning of that “adjustment” which the Secretary advises. It means an adjustment that shall confer a still farther monopoly upon those who are engaged in this country in uneconomical industries—industries which, by differences in climate and other natural conditions, could be prosecuted more cheaply in other countries—cotton-spinning, iron-forging, paper-making, and tea-growing—it means an adjustment that shall cut us off still further from procuring foreign markets for our mechanical inventions, our mineral and farm products, and our nautical handiwork—in fine, it means an adjustment that shall cramp our genius, restrict our enterprise, and cause us, like the fabled pelican, to pluck the food upon which we shall nourish our young, from no other breasts but our own.

Of a character with the Secretary's suggested adjustment are the views he expresses on the subject of Canadian Reciprocity. Narrowness and bigotry pervade the whole argument, little else is seen besides the interests of a few manufacturers, and these, while the interests of the people at large are observed through a microscope, are regarded with all the exaggerations of a magnifying glass.

The Revenue Commission provided for in the amendatory act of March 8, 1865, comes in for a large share of commendation by Mr. McCulloch. All that he can say in approbation of the capacity and fairness of the members of this body, and of the value of their labors, so far as the preparation of statistical data is concerned, we warmly endorse; but we cannot help fearing that the plan they have pursued, and which, it is stated, has been to take up, specifically, certain supposed productive sources of revenue and report upon them separately, is not the right one. This plan, it is to be presumed, was not their own; and they are consequently not to be blamed if it leads to unsatisfactory results. Keeping in mind the undesirability of suggesting any radical change in an established revenue system, their business has been less to inquire and report upon “the best and most efficient system of revenue,” suitable to the country, as their commission reads, than to patch up and plug the holes which two years' wear and tear have already made in the present one. Time and statesmanship alone can remove the saddle which the war has placed upon the country's back. Meanwhile, it is as well perhaps to keep it in as good order as circumstances will permit.

In this connection it gives us great pleasure to commend the policy pursued by the Secretary in relation to the collection of taxes in the late insurrectionary States. By his circular, under date 21st June last, the Department declared its intention to

postpone calling upon the citizens of that section for the payment of any taxes accruing prior to the establishment of collection districts among them. This postponement he now recommends shall be made indefinite.

In the adoption of this measure we at once recognized the wise and politic influence of the present Executive; although it is not denied that outside of the field of Political Economy, in which he is evidently not quite at home, the Secretary's own good judgment would have led him in any event to adopt the same line of policy towards the conquered and devastated South. As it stands, it does honor to both President and Minister, and considering how badly it might have gone with the South had other and less considerate officers been confided with the shaping of this important measure, the country has reason to congratulate itself not alone upon the wisdom and fidelity of its Executive, but it can afford to look lightly upon the economical heresies of his financial Secretary; for the prosperity of the South is as essential to the prosperity of the Union as is the prosperity of the North; and the South never could have recovered from the weight of such an incubus as its conqueror might have put upon it, had passion instead of statesmanship ruled the hour of victory.

Our review of Mr. McCulloch's Report now draws to a close. The judgment we have formed of it we revert to with pain: and more particularly because from the acknowledged incompetency of his predecessor in office so brilliant an opportunity appeared to be open to the new incumbent, and now appears to have been lost. To find fault is much easier than to act, to pull down much easier than to build; but every recognized law in political economy would have had to be ignored in an attempt to palliate the shortcomings of this Report, or to justify the conclusions which it seeks to establish and the recommendations which it endeavors to impose. The overflowing prosperity of a great country may yet cover up every trace of ill-management which has of late distinguished its financial policy, but the critical eye in all times will be enabled to detect the evils which have flowed from it, even though they may lie like buried fossils in the lowest strata of these eventful times.

ART IV.—CLIMATES OF THE SOUTH IN THEIR RELATIONS TO WHITE LABOR.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEGRO RACES—THEIR FUTURE AT THE
SOUTH—WHITE LABOR IN ITS CONFLICT WITH BLACK—ADAPTA-
TION OF THE SOUTH TO IMMIGRATION AND ITS SPLENDID
FIELDS FOR FUTURE ENTERPRISE.

THE following contribution to our pages is made by Dr. J. C. Nott, of Mobile, a most distinguished physician, medical statistician and scientific writer, the author in conjunction with Gliddon of the celebrated work entitled, "Types of Mankind." Dr. Nott has resided a third of a century at Mobile, and is profoundly familiar with all the laws relating to the sanitary condition, mortality and longevity of the white and black races of the South, and his authority on such matters is paramount. We referred to his investigation in a letter addressed by us in the January number of the REVIEW to Governor Perry, of South Carolina. The position which we took in that letter is amply sustained by him, and we commend this letter to thoughtful men in every part of the Union. We then said and repeat:

"By far the larger portion of each of the Southern States is well adapted to white labor, and actual mortality returns indicate a much higher degree of physical health in these localities than in the New England and North-western States. . . . The region referred to embraces nearly the whole of the great States of Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky and Texas, three-fourths of Georgia and Arkansas, one-half of South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and Florida."—EDITOR.

To J. D. B. DeBow, Esq.:

Sir,—The question of labor, for the production of the great staples of the Southern States is now the all-absorbing one with us, and you ask for my views on the subject, particularly the results of my professional observation, in regard to the adaptability of the white race to field labor in our cotton and sugar regions.

Every reflecting man that has studied the past history of the negro, and spent as I have, half a century in daily contact with the race, must apprehend that freed blacks cannot be relied upon as an agricultural population, and that emancipation must ultimately result in their extermination.

In order to show that I have no cherished theory to maintain, or no prejudices of education to combat, I will here repeat what I have been saying and publishing for twenty years past. I have always been an emancipationist at heart—have been utterly opposed to the slave trade—have maintained that every people capable of self-government had a right to liberty, and have again and again said to the few slaves that I have owned, "Whenever you think you can do better without me than with me I will pay your expenses to Boston or Liberia."

Nevertheless I have not been an abolitionist; for the reason

that I looked upon emancipation of our Southern slaves as a measure leading only to misery, and the ultimate destruction of the race in this country. But the United States Government has done the deed, has assumed all the responsibility, which frees my conscience of the offense, and I rejoice that the institution is gone.

The physical and civil history of the negro proves that he never has lived, and never can live, in any other condition than that in which he has been placed. In Africa, he has had nearly a whole Continent to himself for ages, and been in constant contact with Egypt, the mother of European civilization, and yet, unlike the Jews, the Phœnicians, the Assyrians, the Greeks, the Romans and other white races, he has not made a step forward in the march of civilization for five thousand years! There is not a relic of art or science to be found, from the Great Desert of Sahara to the Cape of Good Hope, (the land of the true negro,) to show that civilization ever had a local habitation on that Continent. The negro has never invented an alphabet, nor founded or maintained a constitutional government. He has reached his nearest approximation to civilization in our country. He has never, in his own or any other country, from the time of Moses to the present, except under the direction of the white races, *been an agricultural laborer*, and every well-informed Southern man knows, both from history and personal observation, that, as a class, he will not work unless under restraint. Like the Indian and other inferior races, he may expect to be driven out by the superior intelligence, energy and perseverance of the whites.

The negro rarely thinks of the future, and learns little from experience. There are now thousands of the race scattered over our country, with starvation staring them in the face, unless fed by the Government, and yet, as a general thing, they are making no contracts with employers, or arrangements of any kind for the coming year, though I am now writing in the last days of December. In my professional rounds, every day, persons are asking me, "Where can I get a cook, a washwoman, a house servant?" and though willing to pay twenty dollars a month or more, the want cannot be supplied. The negroes are dying in idleness around this city from disease and starvation.

There is but one thing which saves the South from utter ruin for the next half century, and that is the enormous price of our great staple, cotton. One-fourth of the ordinary number of bales will bring as much money as a full crop in former years, and there is good reason to believe that there will not be more than one-fourth of a crop made in 1866. It is probable that negro labor, the year after that will be better organ-

ized, and something like one-third to half a crop of cotton will be made. After that negro labor will gradually decline, and, as it disappears, white labor will infiltrate into the country, and not only supply the labor of the disappearing negroes, but gradually bring up the cotton product not only to its original figures, but carry it far beyond what it has ever been. How many years this will require no one can foresee; but there is every reason to believe, that the cotton crop will continue to bring, quite as large an income from the present time forward, as it did before the war. Fifty cents a pound is too tempting a bait for the whites to overlook, and there is nothing in our climate potent enough to keep them from it.

With white population too, will come wealth, power and national greatness to the South. With the increase of white population will come increase of intellect, energy, the mechanic arts, etc., and development and progression will be the order of the day. The South has all the elements of greatness, and all she needs is a thorough system of practical education, and a population capable of receiving it.

But let us leave this digression and come to the question before us, viz: that of *Race in connection with climate*.

To comprehend it fully, *climate* must be viewed under two very distinct aspects, first, that of simple *temperature*—second, temperature and malaria combined.

Without touching at all on the vexed question of original Unity or Diversity of Races, we may assert, without fear of contradiction, that the races of men, as we now see them, scattered over the face of the globe, if not so in the beginning, have become peculiarly adapted to certain climates. The negro for example is not only a native of tropical Africa, and maintains his highest physique in hot climates, but is proverbially unsuited to cold latitudes. In New England and Canada, the deaths among the blacks there is every reason to believe, exceed the births, and the race in a few generations would be exterminated by the climate if not renewed by constant immigration.

On the other hand, the Anglo-Saxon and Teutonic race generally, flourish in the middle temperate zone, and deteriorate in the Tropic and Arctic regions. The native land of the negro is death to the white man, and the negro race would be exterminated in Russia.

That these idiosyncracies of the two races can be changed, we have no evidence from history to prove, but on the contrary, we have positive evidence in abundance to prove that the white and black races stood face to face around the Mediterranean sea five thousand years ago, and that there has been

no example from that time to this to show that one race can be transformed into another by anything short of a direct miracle. Climate certainly will never do it.

Official statistics establish conclusively that, in the full acceptance of the term, the French cannot colonize Algeria, nor the English, India. The deaths in those countries, among European colonists steadily exceed the births, and were it not for the constant supply of fresh victims, these colonies would long since have died out. It should be remembered too, that the English in India are engaged in commercial and other pursuits that keep them much within doors and protected from the burning sun of the climate. They have not tilled the soil and been exposed to the intense heat and its malarial creations, as the natives are. Very few scores of years would be sufficient to exterminate one hundred thousand Englishmen in India, if they had to earn their bread at the tail of the plough.

I have not for several years examined any official French statistics in connection with Algeria on this point, but Mons. Boudin, chief surgeon of the department, some years ago proved by figures that more than one hundred thousand Frenchmen had died in Algeria during their attempt at colonization—that the deaths exceeded the births, and that the country could not be colonized by Frenchmen.

It is useless in the present day to multiply facts on this point, and the same reasoning applies with equal force to all the races intermediate between the whites and blacks. Every climate has its Fauna and Flora, and every Fauna has a type of Man peculiarly adapted to it.

Each race of mankind, however, has a certain degree of *pliability* of constitution, a certain degree of *adaptability* to other climates, approximating that of its own Fauna; but there are limits to this *pliability*, which cannot be transcended with impunity.

The negro belongs properly to the tropic, but yet has flourished in full vigor in our Southern States. When, however, you cross the Potomac going northward, his power of endurance begins to yield, and every degree north cuts deeper and deeper into his constitution.

It is estimated that in all, about 400,000 negroes have been imported into the United States from Africa, and our census returns show that they have increased to upwards of 4,000,000; or more than ten-fold—an increase, unparalleled in any agricultural population in the world. All the facts show that they have thriven well, and that too, when exposed in open fields to all the influences of climate.

The white race enjoys a higher degree of *pliability* of con-

stitution than the black. A native of the middle temperate zone, where there are considerable extremes of heat and cold, he is by nature habituated and adapted to much wider range of temperature than the negro. The negro is a native of the tropic, one extreme of climate, and cannot go very far beyond the tropic before he begins to deteriorate. While the white man, the native of a land of cold winters and warm summers, can migrate to the verge of the arctic, and to many parts of the tropic with impunity.

But the question next comes as to *how far* this pliability of the white race extends? In plain English, Can white emigrants be brought to our Southern States, and be made to live, prosper and cultivate cotton, sugar, tobacco and rice? With regard to *Rice* I must enter a strong doubt, but with regard to the other staples I feel *no doubt*. Even rice will be cultivated by white labor at some future day, when the drainage of rice lands becomes more perfect, and, I may add, when there comes a struggle for bread in a crowded population.

I have already remarked that climate must be considered under two heads—1st, that of simple temperature; 2d, temperature and malaria combined. They do not necessarily go together—we have many localities where there is a hot climate without malaria, or the causes of intermittent and bilious fevers; but on the other hand we do not have marsh malaria, except in warm climates, or at least where there are warm summers.

The climate of our cotton region cannot properly be called *hot*, though a *warm* climate. It is not the mere *heat* of our region that makes it unfriendly to European constitutions, but it is the diseases which the sun eliminates from the soil we cultivate. The hilly pine lands, for example, of the Southern States, forming an immense tract, extending from Virginia to the Mississippi, and even far beyond, under the same temperature as other neighboring lands, are *exempt from the influence of marsh malaria*, and are universally regarded as salubrious, and resorted to by the better class of society as summer residences with perfect safety.

Not so with really *hot* climates. In India, for example, the Anglo-Saxon is killed outright by high temperature independently of atmospheric poisons. The frame is attenuated by the exhausting effects of heat and profuse perspiration—the muscles are relaxed and debilitated, the nervous system is exhausted, the liver inflames and becomes corroded with abscesses, and the whole machine is worn out by the wear and tear of *heat*, and the want of exercise which the climate does not permit. All this, I say, may and does occur independently of malaria, from high temperature alone.

It will be readily admitted that when the Germanic, or Anglo-Saxon people come into our cotton region, they leave their normal position, and subject themselves to an unaccustomed test of climatic influence. The system is called upon for a certain amount of resistance to a foreign climate, and the struggle results in a certain amount of physical deterioration. The descendants of the Anglo-Saxon and German are no longer exact models of the original prototypes, though the race is still essentially the same—modified, but not changed in type. The complexion is less clear and florid; the body is less plump and vascular; the marks of age appear earlier. An English man or woman is as youthful in appearance at the age of fifty as ours ten years younger; their statesmen and literary men wear longer than ours; the value of life, even in the healthiest parts of the South, is a grade less than in Great Britain and other temperate parts of Europe.

Although more favorable, perhaps, as a whole to European constitutions than our cotton States of the South, I do not regard the climate and population of New England as at all comparable to those of the better parts of Europe. Certainly the population of New England does not compare with that of old England, nor do I think it by any means certain that there is more health or more longevity in New England than in the non-malarious districts of the Southern States.

I recollect hearing Henry Clay say, that the finest population in the world is seen walking in Regent Street, London; and in this opinion I fully concur.

It must be confessed, however, that the climate of the Gulf States particularly is unfavorable to mental cultivation and high intellectual development. The people are full of genius, courage, chivalry and all the high qualities that adorn humanity. Such characters as General Washington, Patrick Henry, Stonewall Jackson, General Lee, the Lowndes, the Rutledges, the Pinckneys, and many others of the South, can no more be grown in extreme Northern latitudes than cotton, sugar, pine-apples and oranges, and yet the heat of the climate for four months of the year puts a stop to steady, plodding, intellectual labor, and the South, in my opinion, will never equal the North in profound learning and general literary attainment. Too much time is lost out of each year to keep up in the race.

But, as we have said, the mere matter of temperature at the South is no serious impediment to the introduction of white labor, and the next question is, What are the difficulties arising from the influence of marsh malaria, with its fevers and other diseases of our climate?

We have said that the pine hills are healthy, and that the

whites can and do live there with health. We have on the other hand said, that the white man cannot cultivate the rice fields, and a considerable portion of the *alluvial* cotton lands. *But on the other hand there is an immense proportion of our cotton lands, on which white laborers can and will live with a reasonable degree of health—perhaps (when we take into consideration the many diseases incident to dense populations) with as much health as in most parts of Europe from which our emigrants come.*

A very large portion of our cotton lands are to a great degree exempt from malarial diseases, and making an average of the whole year, and thus including diseases of cold as well as heat, it may be well doubted whether these portions are not as favorable to health and longevity as either our New England or Western States. For example, the lime or prairie lands of Mississippi and Alabama, and the uplands generally of the Carolina's, Georgia and other cotton States—even the fertile lands on the banks of the Mississippi, when thoroughly drained and cultivated, may be considered as quite healthy, and if a good system of drainage and culture was generally adopted, the proportion of land unsuited to white labor would be small.

Laying aside all speculation on the subject, there are facts in abundance to prove that whites can live, labor and make cotton in our climate, and the bait is too tempting to be resisted. At fifty cents a pound, one industrious laborer can make his food and clothing, and put besides yearly a thousand dollars of good money in his pocket, and the white man will do it at a much greater risk of life or health than he is called upon to make in well-selected cotton-fields of the South.

Even now, every where through the Carolinas, Georgia and the Gulf States, you see little farms worked successfully by white laborers, both male and female. We should, too, have seen a great deal more of this kind of labor had it not been for the proximity of slave labor. Not only have these small farmers been driven off by the monopoly of the rich, in buying up their little farms to get them out of the way, but agricultural labor has scarcely been considered honorable at the South. The poor white man was put on a footing with the slave that he despised.

Another proof of the availability of white labor is seen around our towns—nearly all the market gardens around Mobile and New Orleans (and so with other towns) are cultivated by white laborers, although these localities are among the most insalubrious in the South. The towns themselves are healthy to the acclimated, but the marshy suburbs are very sickly.

Who, let us ask, have built our Southern towns. Is it not almost exclusively Northern and foreign carpenters and bricklayers, who labor in the full blaze of a Southern sun?

Although Germans, Irish and Northerners can and will live and prosper in the Southern States, there is no doubt that emigrants from France, Spain and Italy would be most readily and perfectly adapted to our climate. The elegance and robustness of the Creole population, male and female, of Louisiana, is proverbial. They are one of the finest-looking people in the world, and the most healthy ever seen. I doubt whether even the population of Great Britain possesses more health, vigor and longevity than the creole population of Louisiana, but it is all physique. They are generally deficient in energy and entertainment, and rarely attain intellectual excellence.

This physique of the creoles is easily accounted for. The population of France, including that of Normandy (which is mostly of German descent) is like all the population bordering the Mediterranean Sea, essentially *Southern*. The American traveller, after leaving Paris *en route* for Marseilles, does not go far before he is struck by the Southern look of the people—short stature, dark complexion, black hair and eyes—in short, a physique contrasting strongly with the inhabitants of Germany and Britain.

Having prepared this paper at your request, and upon short notice, I can only regret its deficiencies. The subject is a vast one, and might very well occupy a volume. All I can hope by this hasty sketch is to induce thought in others.

Yours, etc.,

J. C. NOTT, M. D.

MOBILE, ALABAMA, 28th December, 1865.

ART. V.—PETROLEUM.

THE falling off in the production of Petroleum and the dying out of the excitement in regard to it, coincident with the cessation of the late civil war and the restoration of commercial relations with the Southern people, will render most welcome to a large class of our readers some record of the discovery, development and great wealth of this marvelous product. Like the sudden discovery of a mine of fabulous wealth, it added immensely to the resources of the North during the most critical period of their financial contraction, renewing confidence in the midst of depression, bringing wealth in the period of the great losses by the destruction of the shipping interests, and turning the balance of foreign exchange largely in our favor when the military situation seemed to promise an almost

interminable conflict of arms. Now that the old commercial relations are being reestablished between North and South, and those who have so long been separated from an acquaintance with each other's productions by the lines of hostile armies again meet on common ground, this wonderful product has taken a minor place in the public interest, and attention is little called to it except by those directly interested in it, or of that numerous class who have lost so largely in their wild speculations.

The oil region of Western Pennsylvania, far excelling in productiveness all other localities combined, is limited almost exclusively to the Alleghany River Valley, the most productive portion of it consisting of an irregular quadrangle, each of its sides being from fifteen to twenty-five miles in length, and with Oil Creek, from Titusville to Oil City about equally dividing it. It is true that oil in large quantities has been found outside of these limits, but this locality has been the great fountain head of the enormous supply. In similar geological formations of the same range in Western Virginia, in Eastern Kentucky and Ohio, and in Western New York and Canada, oil has also been found, while proofs are not wanting of its existence in several of the Southern States. In California it is said to exist in more considerable quantities, and several wells have been sunk, yielding a fair supply of oil, but nothing to compare with the Pennsylvania wells.

The physical features of the Pennsylvania oil region, abounding in all the natural beauty of the Alleghanies, are easily understood and full of interest. The bed of the Alleghany River in the region of the largest oil wells, is from two hundred and fifty to three hundred feet above the level of Lake Erie, and some eight hundred feet above tidewater, while its banks rise precipitately from one hundred to four hundred feet on either side, as high up or as low down as can be traced, gray, yellow or brown sandstone, alternating with blue, red, or brown shales, lie in beautiful horizontal lines of remarkable regularity, with scarcely a perceptible "dip." It is in the first, second, or third layer of this sandstone that the oil is usually "struck;" the depth at which it lies varying widely from one hundred feet to six, eight and ten hundred feet, and one well actually being more than twelve hundred feet deep. Humboldt estimated that there were in the United States over two hundred thousand square miles of this sandstone formation, so that it is evident the oil, though found in these localities, is dependent upon other conditions for its formation. The theory that coal and petroleum are of like origin has not been at all borne out thus far, and they have been actually separated by great dis-

tances. The oil regions of Venango County is bounded on the south and east by the coal fields, but boring through the coal measures for oil has not as yet been at all successful, and wood has been largely used instead of coal in operating the machinery as being more economical.

Petroleum, or rock oil, though suddenly attaining such commercial importance, has long been known to exist. Franklin, Pennsylvania, one of the towns now doing a large oil business, boasts of being one of the most ancient settlements in the State, and in 1754 General Montcalm reports the Indians of Franklin using an oil gathered from the neighboring creek in their paints, and burning it with their sacrifices. In 1849, Mr. Samuel M. Kier, of Pittsburgh, had some analyzed by a Philadelphia chemist, and found that it was a valuable illuminating oil, but required a new lamp for burning it. Making a lamp in which it would burn; he erected a refinery, and from 1850 to 1855 disposed of all the petroleum he could obtain from his own and his neighbors' salt wells.

In 1853 a New York firm had their attention called to the oil. Professor Silliman, upon examining a specimen, said it might prove valuable for lubricating, and perhaps could be used for illuminating. The result was the purchase of a small farm in Venango County, near what is now Oil Creek, by the New York firm, and in 1858 the first oil well was sunk. Owing to the difficulties experienced in freeing the oil from impurities, and rendering it non-explosive, it was not until 1860 that public attention was generally called to the subject, and the sinking of oil wells became a regular business.

The magnificent success which attended the first investments at once attracted the attention of capitalists everywhere, and the supply of petroleum was deemed perfectly inexhaustible. If a small section of the favored region could be obtained, it was held that the possessor's fortune was made, yet there has been no branch of productive industry whose receipts have been more uncertain than that of petroleum. During five years the price of oil at the wells has ranged from ten cents to thirteen dollars and fifty cents per barrel. In the latter part of 1861, owing to the out-break of a large number of flowing wells, bringing the supply suddenly up from one hundred and fifty to three or four thousand barrels per day, the market value sunk so low that the cost of the barrel exceeded that of its contents, and twenty-five cents a barrel was thought a high figure for illuminating oil. This extraordinary cheapness had the effect of forcing the article into all parts of the country, open to domestic trade, and to Europe, where a large demand sprang up. The next year prices improved considerably, re-

ceding in the Spring of 1863 in consequence of the large flow of a great many wells. The extreme fluctuations have shown a range of prices for crude oil at the wells, from ten cents to thirteen dollars and fifty cents per barrel, and the average range has been about equi-distant from these extremes. The additional value given to the product by refining, storage, transportation, etc., have very largely increased this ratio of prices. The amount of the product for the first few years can only be roughly estimated, but the very large exports in 1864, amounting to over thirty-one millions of dollars, give some idea of the abundant yield of the wells.

These large returns on such comparatively small capital created an intense excitement among moneyed men and speculators, and companies were quickly formed in all parts of the country, to take advantage of the better than golden opportunity. It is estimated that not less than twelve hundred companies, altogether, have been formed, with an aggregate nominal capital of from eight hundred to one thousand millions. A large part of this capital has never been paid in, and the greater part of it which is represented by property, is unproductive and likely to remain so. The best wells have fallen away and finally given out entirely, and that which was thought the most promising oil territory, has in hundreds of instances proved worthless. The number of individuals made suddenly rich has been large, but it has been in a great degree owing to the readiness with which the uninitiated, under the influence of the excitement were induced to make investments at fabulous prices. It is estimated that the whole oil territory of Pennsylvania might have been purchased a few years since for seven hundred thousand dollars, and now it is held to be worth more than two hundred and fifty millions. The amount of humbug, however, has been fully equal to the actual promise, and the number of individuals in every community, who have for some time past vainly sought to get rid of stock in some petroleum company unknown on exchange, is very large. Those companies which do pay well now, not more than three or four in a hundred of those established—are prosecuting their business more as a legitimate branch of industry than as a speculation, and the brokers vainly endeavor to call public attention to the "good-promise" of any particular favored region. It is probable that the permanent yield of petroleum will be very much below what it has been, though, fitful and uncertain as it is, the complete drying up of its subterranean fountain would be most unexpected.

We subjoin a tabular statement of reports from 1860 to the close of 1865:

EXPORT OF CRUDE AND REFINED (INCLUDING NAPHTHA, &c.) FROM NEW-YORK, FOR THE YEARS 1863, 1864, 1865, 1862 and 1861.

	1865.	1864.	1863.	1862.	1861.
To Liverpool.....galls.	1,561,987	734,755	2,156,851	1,781,377	187,254
London.....	376,283	1,430,710	2,576,331	1,133,399	115,844
Glasgow.....	156,147	368,402	414,943	24,181	276,977
Bristol.....	110,412	29,124	71,912
Falmouth, E.....	509,815	316,402	623,176
Grangemouth, E.....	102,292	425,334
Cork, &c.....	1,137,486	3,310,362	1,532,287	299,366
Bowling, E.....	87,164
Dublin.....	195
Havre.....	604,830	2,324,017	1,774,890	704,221	73,716
Marseilles.....	1,333,752	1,982,075	1,167,893	135,765	1,600
Bordeaux.....	200
Cette.....	4,800	2,700	80
Dunkirk.....	110,099	232,803
Dieppe.....	79,581	46,000	61,692
Rouen.....	97,841	143,646
Antwerp.....	1,593,528	4,149,821	2,692,974	823,090	5,671
Bremen.....	231,983	971,905	903,004	452,522	32,112
Amsterdam.....	77,041	436
Hamburg.....	981,766	1,186,089	1,466,155	229,384	42,343
Rotterdam.....	292,569	532,926	737,249	16,933	640
Gottenburgh.....	33,813
Stockholm.....	81,960
Cronstadt.....	891,389	400,376	88,960
Stettin.....	53,317
Cadiz and Malaga.....	97,782	58,474	53,284
Alicante.....	44,988	16,823	33,000
Barcelona.....	5,128	25,500
Gibraltar.....	72,742	69,181	308,450	157	200
Oporto.....	23,205	17,474	9,339
Palermo.....	22,615	7,983	87,115	3,990
Genoa and Leghorn.....	666,611	679,606	339,674	21,000	62
Trieste.....	666,371	165,175	5,000
Alexandria, Egypt.....	4,000
Lisbon.....	93,713	167,195	64,662	58
Canary Islands.....	5,244	3,358	5,125	1,296
Madeira.....	400	430
Bilboa.....	203,818	2,500
China and East Indies..	42,170	34,333	36,942	3,970	400
Africa.....	17,090	25,195	12,280	655	445
Australia.....	735,891	377,884	304,166	233,699	163,363
Otago, N. Z.....	14,880	10,810	5,500	7,850
Sydney, N. S. W.....	162,923	97,880	48,018	113,750
Brazil.....	291,752	149,676	160,152	54,967	5,882
Mexico.....	194,936	112,986	69,481	18,616	3,702
Cuba.....	704,627	418,034	356,436	213,686	150,703
Argentine Republic.....	67,416	20,260	24,476	7,390	4,200
Cisplatine Republic.....	72,852	78,552	117,626	13,227	206
Chili.....	63,228	92,550	66,550	17,810
Peru.....	110,340	169,081	256,407	56,011
British Honduras.....	2,052	6,072	440
British Guiana.....	5,800	7,381	15,104	9,396	3,035
British West Indies.....	108,041	70,976	60,931	13,883	3,719
British N. Amer. Col.....	104,080	28,902	16,995	2,943	2,636
Danish West Indies.....	10,947	8,463	31,503	4,102	1,770
Dutch West Indies.....	18,369	26,638	12,143	7,117
French West Indies.....	31,118	16,020	9,104	2,332
Hayti.....	13,696	7,083	12,064	4,866	964
Central America.....	5,494	993	456	1,764
Venezuela.....	39,794	28,583	15,455	1,094	610
New Grenada.....	58,570	57,490	107,337	37,058	15,552
Porto Rico.....	43,355	20,026	59,439	25,244	13,925
Total.....galls.	14,332,132	21,335,784	19,547,604	6,720,273	1,112,476

TOTAL EXPORT IN 1861, 1862, 1863, 1864, 1865.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
New York.....galls.	1,112,476	6,720,273	12,547,604	21,335,784	14,332,133
Boston.....	Small }	1,071,100	2,049,431	1,996,307	1,500,000
Philadelphia.....		2,800,978	5,395,738	7,760,148	11,500,000
Baltimore.....		174,830	915,866	929,971	971,500
Portland.....		120,250	342,080	70,762	11,200
New Bedford.....		50,000
Cleveland.....		80,000	81,200
Total Ex. from U. S. galls.	10,887,431	28,250,721	32,592,972	28,456,032

ART VI.—VIRGINIA—HER PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE.

WERE there nothing in the history of Virginia to excite attention and elicit enquiry, except the history of her four years' war, that has just ended, her bearing in that war would make men curious to find out the pedigree, training, laws, habits, customs, social institutions, and all the antecedents, of her people. We do not propose, in this essay, to gratify in full this natural and laudable curiosity, but only to treat of some of the salient points in her history, and of some of the most distinguished features in her laws, industrial pursuits and social institutions; which, however, we think, will of themselves suffice to account for her chivalrous bearing, her pure morality, her religious faith, her conservative spirit, and her intellectual superiority.

The Virginia Company, that undertook and carried out the first successful settlement of the colony, was composed, in great measure, of the highest nobility of England—of cavaliers, Church of England men, of men intensely conservative, and bigottedly opposed to all change and innovation. The company consisted of more than six hundred members, whose object was neither political nor religious liberty, but to found a transatlantic empire, the counterpart of England, such as they thought England should be, that is, England divested of Dissenters, Catholics, Liberals, Radicals and Rationalists. They were careful to send to the colony none whose political or religious opinions might disturb its harmony,—none but loyalists and orthodox Episcopalians.

Severe laws were enacted to punish dissenters, but as no dissenters came, they finding "ample room and verge enough" in the more northern colonies, these laws, for the most part, slept upon the statute book.

Up to, and for many years after the Protectorate, Virginia remained loyal in politics and orthodox in religious faith. England was, in the meantime, divided between Dissenters and Church of England men, Radicals and Conservatives, Roundheads and Cavaliers, who were most zealously and eagerly blowing out each others brains, independent of God and liberty.

Virginia presented a moral spectacle never before witnessed by

mankind; for a nation of Conservatives is as unnatural, and for any length of time, quite as impossible as a nation of women. In all societies in a natural and normal state, men are born in about equal numbers, as Radicals and Conservatives, just as males and females are born in equal numbers. Without Radicals, or, to speak more accurately, without Rationalists, society would stagnate and fall back. Without conservatives, society would be in a state of continual revolution. Laws, customs, political and religious institutions, (for want of stability,) would afford no security to life, liberty, or property, and anarchy would soon wind up the drama, unless the friendly sword of despotism intervened to quiet discord and educe order out of chaos. Faith and reason are equally necessary guides and forces in the conduct of life, individual, social and political. They are the anti-nomes, the opposing, yet concurrent forces, that sustain and keep in action the moral world. There never was a sane man, or community, or nation, that was not more or less influenced and directed in their conduct as well by faith as by reason. The war between faith and reason did not begin with Luther, and the reformation. It is a war as old as mankind, and one essential to the preservation of mankind.

For centuries anterior to the reformation, men reasoned too little, and believed too much. Hence society stagnated, or progressed too slowly, and despotism, religious and political, prevailed. Scarcely, however, had Luther and Calvin upraised the banner of reason, ere men began to reason for themselves, too much, and to believe too little. Hence Luther found it necessary to anathematize and excommunicate more freely and more boldly than the Pope himself, and Calvin burnt Servetus and several others,—whilst Henry the Eighth, the most beloved of England's Kings, with singular impartiality, sent to the stake of martyrdom, on the same hurdle, Catholics and Protestants. Men soon found that Pope Luther, or Pope Calvin, or Pope Harry, were better than no pope at all. Now every Christian church has a system of faith prescribed by its superior authorities, which its members must believe, or suffer excommunication. Yet reason is everywhere indulged in bolder speculations than it was by the early cavaliers of Virginia, or the puritan fathers of New England.

In New England, however, the settlers having a bran new religion, the Congregational, just formed, or at least essentially modified, by the reasoning of their church authorities; men soon began to break loose from the authority of a parvenue church, to indulge the right of private judgment, and to reason, far too freely, on all subjects, for themselves. We have not time to pursue this subject, but think that, generally, reason so far predominates, at the North, over faith, usage, custom, habit, prescription and authority, that we do no injustice in styling the people of the North "Rationalists"—rationalists in religion, in politics, in agriculture, in law, in medicine; in fine, rationalists in all the pursuits and conduct of life. And as old party issues are dead, and can never be revived, we suggest that the

new parties about to be formed, (for they will grow up necessarily from the character and circumstances of the times), be called Rationalists and Conservatives.

The men who proposed to settle Virginia were eminently loyal, aristocratic and conservative. The men who did settle it were men of like character. The first ship brought over about a hundred colonists, fifty-five of whom were, *gentlemen*: for "it is so nominated in the bond." Afterwards, from time to time, the sons and kinsmen of the nobility, and thousands of other gentlemen, continued to settle in the colony. After the beheading of Charles I., (a deed that was universally condemned and execrated in Virginia, and admired and approved in New England), a perfect avalanche of Episcopalians, Conservatives and Loyalists, precipitated itself into the colony, whilst, shortly thereafter, a part of the regicides and their friends escaped into New England.

Meantime, the traffic in human flesh, white flesh, was most busily and profitably carried on. Ship loads of apprentices were daily sent over to Virginia, consigned to agents or commission merchants, who disposed of them just as of any other merchandize. If a negro owner be an aristocrat, how much more of an aristocrat must have been the owner of white men. These apprentices served from four to six years, and when their terms of service expired, soon made enough money to buy apprentices themselves, for the market was overstocked with them, and they sold dirt cheap.

After awhile negro slaves were imported, and this gave a new stimulant to the already aristocratic, loyal and conservative tone of Virginia society. Farms became little kingdoms of the most despotic character, and in vain did the House of Burgesses lay out towns on paper, and urge men, by frequent statutes, to "cohabitation"—that is, the living together in towns. Farm life partook too much of the semblance, if not the reality of royalty, to be exchanged for the vulgar marts of trade, in sickly, half-alive villages. Hence there were no towns in Virginia up to the time of the Revolution of '76, and few men occupied in other pursuits than farming. 'Tis true, that all along the Potomac, the James, and the Rappahannock, each riparian planter had a store, for the convenience of himself and his forest neighbors. These stores were supplied, spring and fall, by ships from England, with every variety of merchandise. Then our tide-water rivers resembled the streets of Venice, and these stores along their banks constituted our towns, if any we had.

The apprentices furnished good cooks, gardeners, house-servants, mechanics of all kinds, schoolmasters, agents and attorney's clerks, etc., etc., and the negroes the best field hands in the world, for they were satisfied and contented, never having heard of abolition, liberty or equality.

We regret that historic truth compels us to acknowledge that the white apprentices were most cruelly treated. But even in this the colonists showed their eminent conservatism, their respect for precedent and authority. Their laws for whipping and branding the

apprentices are almost literal copies of the early English poor laws, inclining, however, to the side of mercy; for whilst the English laborer was whipped for the first offence of quitting his parish, branded for the second, and hung for the third, the extremest punishment for the Virginia apprentice, for the grave offence of running away from his master was branding with the letter "R," which one would have supposed stood for "Runaway," did not the statutes declare it meant "Rogue." Thorough conservatives as we are, we do not thoroughly approve (probably because we do not thoroughly understand the necessities of the times) the Spanish "Auto-da-fé" and the Virginia branding of white runaways. Yet it is more than we can do to solve the moral problems of our own times, and we seldom undertake to censure the legislation of past times, believing that each age and each people understands its own affairs, and always legislates more wisely for the necessities of the occasion than we or any other outsider could possibly do.

In Colonial times, the Governor and Council of Virginia were appointed by the King. The persons selected were always wealthy, well-bred, well-educated and intelligent. They kept up much of the ceremonial, and something of the display of royalty, first at Jamestown and afterwards at Williamsburg. From these social centres all society received its form and purpose, became courtly, dignified and reserved, and has to this day sustained somewhat of that character. Washington and the Lee's were brought up in this social school. Washington, General Robert E. Lee, and the late Bishop Meade, we should select as the best exponents and highest types of Virginian character. Will that character be changed and suffer from the industrial revolution to which we have been subjected? We think not. Our reasons we reserve for another part of this essay.

The vestry of each parish church was a conservative institution. Looking into the records of the old Colonial churches, we find that the vestrymen were men of influence, note and substance, selected and appointed, not because of their piety, but because they deemed the church a most useful institution in restraining crime and preserving order. The Church in America, like the Mother Church in England, was then quite as much of a political as religious institution. Looking to it chiefly as a police or political institution, the vestry cared very little as to the purity or even morality of the Church incumbents. Like Thompson's doctor "of tremendous paunch," the parsons drank harder than their parishioners, and were, besides, profane sorcerers, gamblers, and horse-racers. This state of things, arising from excess of conservatism, gradually brought about a general demoralization of society. From about the revolution of 1776 until about 1820, Virginia gentlemen were much given to dissipation of all kinds, neglected their farms, became involved in debt, and many were avowed infidels. This state of things has been gradually and entirely corrected by the efforts of the Baptist, Presbyterian, and Methodist churches, aided most efficiently of late years by the Episco-

pal Church, which has become quite as pure in its morality, and, we have no doubt, as devout in its faith as either of those churches.

We know not an avowed infidel in the State of Virginia, and the morals of our people, rich and poor, will bear favorable comparison with those of any other people whatever. We are eminently a religious people, full of faith, and regardless of theological speculations. Hence, no new churches arise amongst us, and hence, also, the admirable harmony and good feeling between our different churches. The most singular phenomenon, however, which our society presents, is the total absence of socialism, communism, and the thousand other isms that divide and distract Christendom every where without our Southern States, and which shows conclusively that conservatism is universal with us, whilst rationalism is busy everywhere else in undermining all the old and venerable institutions of society, upsetting all old faiths and opinions, banishing all old habits, usages, and customs, and with "assiduous wedges," endeavoring to rive, sheer asunder all the ties that have heretofore bound man to man.

We admit there is excess of conservatism in Virginia, whilst we fearlessly assert that there is excess of rationalism at the North. We may learn from each other many useful lessons. The standstill conservatism of the one section, and the rash, heedless progressive rationalism of the other, are antinomies, which in the hands of skilful and prudent rulers may be employed as concurrent forces, and beget a healthy equipoise.

Our dislike to all change or innovation, our respect for old institutions, habits, and customs, has certainly retarded material progress and physical improvements in Virginia; but only retarded them. When the late war broke out, there was not a more moral, intellectual, prosperous and contented people in the world than we. Our population was increasing in a slower ratio than our wealth, yet fast enough to ensure us almost a plethora of inhabitants in little more than a century. It was matter of self-congratulation that we were not doubling our population once in twenty years and were not threatened with that most direful of evils—excess of population. Our colleges and academies had more native students than those of any other State; and the social standing of our citizens, when they visited other States, as well as their insight and influence in our national councils, showed that no students profited more by the education bestowed on them than did ours. We had few millionaires, fewer speculators, but little of trade and its tricks, scarcely any paupers, and a very large class possessed of easy and independent means: not so easy and independent, however, as not to require industrious attention and supervision by their owners.

We had constructed a great many railroads, and other internal improvements, and, by our delay in erecting them, profited as well by the mistakes and errors of those who preceded us, as by their useful discoveries and inventions. In all new schemes and experiments it is always wisest and most prudent to let others lead

the way. We ought to have a canal and a railroad to the Ohio, but we must not be in a hurry about it. We have more good land than our people can cultivate, and should not starve, or be the less comfortable, if there were not a railroad in the world. The Ohio connection is the only thing we fear in the future; the only thing which we think can materially change or modify Virginia character. We are now, and ever have been, a nation of gentlemen farmers. That connection may build up a New York at Richmond, and make us a nation of shop-keepers, traders and speculators—give us *parvenue* millionaires in our towns, and an ignorant peasantry in the country. If such are to be the consequences, all true Virginians will rue the day when those improvements are completed.

We have yet other things in the texture of Virginia society to notice, and from which to account for the eminently aristocratic and conservative character of her people. Until recently her Governor was elected by the Legislature, and the Legislature itself by free hold suffrage. Her magistracy, who, besides being conservators of the peace, were justices of the county courts, and whose jurisdiction was almost without limit, were self-nominated and created, the commissioning them by the Governor being found, in practice, a mere matter of form. These justices constituted a sort of hereditary aristocracy, and never lived there a purer or more intelligent set of men. They worked without fee or reward, except the distant expectancy of the sheriffalty, which fell to them by turns. Their decisions were far less frequently reversed than those of the Superior Court, by our Court of Appeals, or Supreme Court. The judges of the Superior Court and of the Court of Appeals, as well as many other officers, were also elected by the Legislature. Comparatively recent conventions have changed these things, and made most officers of government elected by the people. Yet we are sure the people are sick and tired of these changes, and innovations, and will, ere long, by convention, reestablish the old order of things, except that of freehold suffrage. It would never do, in a society where there is a numerous inferior race, seemingly even, to degrade white citizens to a level with that race. This would be to invite amalgamation. No! Let the whites of Virginia ever remain, like Roman citizens, a privileged class, with an inferior, unprivileged race below them. This of itself, will go far to preserve the conservative and aristocratic caste of Virginia character. We do not think that the tone of our society will be lowered, but rather exalted, by emancipation. The negroes will be employed to labor for rich and poor, and the substratum of an inferior race will be generally diffused, not confined to a comparatively few large slave-holders. Thus all white men will equally partake of that elevated spirit and bearing that belongs to a privileged class.

As to the actual emancipation of negroes, living in the midst of white society, none but fools, or crazy fanatics, believe that possible. it would be as easy to blanch his skin and straighten his hair, as so to change his moral and intellectual nature as to elevate him to an

equality with the whites. Since the world began men of inferior mental and moral qualifications have been virtually slaves, hewers of wood and drawers of water, for those of superior capacities. This is more especially the case, where an inferior race, without property and without skill or education, lives in the midst of a superior race;—for under such circumstances, should there be an occasional sporadic instance, of a clever, sensible individual in the ranks of the inferior race, antipathy of race would debar him from all chance of emerging from the low condition of his own caste, and elevating himself to an equality with the race or caste above him.

The question remains, "How can the freedmen be compelled to labor?" It is the first and most incumbent duty of all governments to compel all men to work, for governments are but mutual insurance societies that undertake to provide for all from the proceeds of the labor of all. White men are so provident for the future, that few of us know that we have vagrant laws, by virtue of which idle white men may be put to work in prisons, or sold into temporary slavery. It is mere waste of words to say to the negroes, "work or starve." The freedman's bureau is pledged to compel the freedmen to labor. It has ample power to attain this object. It now says, "You freedmen must hire yourselves out." The majority of them are about as well qualified to hire themselves out as Hottentots. The officers of the bureau must hire them out, and then compel them by force to serve out the time for which they are hired. They are, surely, no better than white sailors, or soldiers, or apprentices, who are compelled to serve by force, if needed. North and South are equally interested in this matter, and practical men from either section will see to it that the negro performs his appropriate roll in society.

ART. VII.—THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER AND THE OBSTRUCTIONS TO ITS COMMERCE.

For a number of years the great subject of deepening and improving the passes of the Mississippi, so as to render it available for the use of the largest ships, has been one of prominent interest to the entire West, as well as to the shipping interests of New England. The ablest papers have appeared, and several times Congress has taken action in the premises. Still the obstructions remain, as will be seen by the following letter to the "Lighthouse Board," from the venerable Jacob Barker, of New Orleans:

WASHINGTON, December 6, 1865.

Com. W. B. SHERBICK, Chairman Lighthouse Board:

Respected Sir—I left New Orleans on the 19th ult., on the steamer Morning Star, for New York; she grounded on the evening of that day, when attempting to cross the bar at the Balize on a bank formed by the side of a Confederate ironclad gunboat sunk in the channel, designated only by a post of about eight inches, which it was impossible to discover at sufficient distance to avoid. I remained on board two days, and then transferred to a passing boat. I have been informed that the Morning Star remained on the bar a week longer, with a great number of passengers on board, and I have not yet heard of her getting off.

A United States vessel of war was greatly injured, a year or two since, by running against the said wreck, to repair which it is said to have cost \$8,000 or \$10,000. The pilot at the Balize informed me that a large can buoy should be placed over the wreck, and that as the channel, over the bar shifted every gale of wind, it should be buoyed with a dozen mushroom buoys; that if the United States would furnish them, with fastenings and sixty fathoms of $\frac{1}{2}$ chain, the pilots would place them every time the channel changed, without any charge for their services.

The light of the Southwest Pass is very small and dim. The south light, fifteen miles distant, is very brilliant. It would be of great advantage to the commerce of New Orleans to have the dim light removed, replacing it by one similar to the south light.

Will you allow me to solicit your early attention to this subject, to the end that if my suggestions are approved, no delay may take place in having the needful done, in which the whole commercial interest of the nation is concerned.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JACOB BARKER.

Remarking upon this letter the New Orleans Prices Current says: "It has been demonstrated beyond a doubt by the performances of the dredge boats formerly used, that by the use of boats and machinery rightly constructed, a depth of some twenty feet of water, or more, could at all times be had on the Bar at the South West Pass, and this too, at an expense so small when viewed in connexion with the results obtained, as to make it a matter of not much concern. There are no less than seventeen States directly interested in keeping the Passes open for foreign and coastwise commerce and these States are not surpassed in productiveness by any equal number in the whole United States."

At the request of the editor of the Review, Albert Stein, Esq., a distinguished engineer and venerable citizen of Mobile, has prepared the following article in which the whole subject is discussed with great ability:

THE SOUTHWEST PASS OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The Board of the United States Engineers, in their report on the improvement of the passes of the Mississippi River, dated New Orleans October 28th, 1852, stated that: "They find in the various and conflicting theories and projects brought forward by eminent engineers, &c. * * * * great cause to distrust any opinion they may form themselves, and equal cause to distrust the projects of theorists, who have made all their observations and facts subservient to a preconceived opinion. * * * They have, themselves, adopted no theory as to the formation of these bars, or as a basis of projects for their removal, for they believe the subject too difficult, and the facts collected too few, to justify any theory; nor have they attempted to confute the projects and theories of others."

Mr. Herbert, the State Engineer of Louisiana, says: "Let us submit ourselves not to struggle with the Mississippi. We have no hold over it—our presumptuous efforts can only result in bringing the punishment over our own heads."

R. Montaign, civil engineer, in a pamphlet; "Project of a ship canal between the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico," written and published by him, New Orleans, 1861, says: "All the investigations hitherto made convince us that we are powerless to improve the outlets of the river, either by acting directly on the passes, or by modifying the general course of action of the river itself; and we are again and again compelled to admit, that the Mississippi has not, and cannot have, a reliable and adequate outlet at the extremity of its course."

The following remarks, in relation to the improvement of the navigation of the Southwest Pass, will show how far the opinions above quoted are borne out by the correct principles of river improvement.

The Southwest Pass projects far into the Gulf of Mexico, and is much exposed to the action of the marine current, which sets from the coast of Mexico along the northern borders of the Gulf, and re-

tards the formation of new land in the line of its direct route. This is evident from the fact, that the gain in the formation of new land here in the last century has been very slow, and that the Pass has a very steep instead of a gradually shelving frontage.

The gain of new land at the Pass à L'Outre, and the Northeast Pass is much more rapid, because they do not project so far into the Gulf, and are therefore less exposed to the action of the marine current which passes near the embankment of the Southwest Pass on its way to the Tortugas. At the mouth of the Rhine there was, evidently, a period when the river had the ascendancy, but at present it is in favor of the ocean. The advance of the delta of the Nile is also arrested by the marine current which sets along the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea.

The Southwest Pass of the Mississippi River has a length of about sixteen miles, from the head of the Pass to the deep water, in the Gulf of Mexico. For the first ten miles it has an average width of sixteen hundred feet, and a depth of sixty feet in the line of current. For the other six miles, which constitute the estuary of the Pass, the low banks recede from a breadth of two thousand to eight thousand feet at the Gulf. The depth of water in the line of current at the head of the estuary is sixty feet, and on the bar, about one and a half miles distant from the deep water in the Gulf, it is fourteen at common high tide. This enigma, in the decrease of depth, may, in some degree, be solved by the following example: "If a volume of water of 96,000 cubic feet require a mean depth of 60 feet to flow with a velocity of one foot per second through a channel of 1,600 feet in breadth, it will require for a breadth of 8,000 feet, in the same condition, a mean depth of only 14 feet. The average rise and fall of the tide at the mouth of the Passes is twelve inches in twenty-four hours. The high water level in the lower portion of the estuary may be considered a fixed point, which cannot be materially influenced by the stage of the water in the Mississippi River. The Pass is in a state of nature, and the current is in equilibrium with the stability of the channel, yet being composed of very fine sand and mud, and the stream being easily turned aside by the slightest obstruction, there is, therefore, no security for the current's continuing to maintain the same track.

On both sides of the Pass there are several lateral outlets, through which a portion of the water of the main channel is discharged into the Gulf, and thus a part of the natural power of the current of the Pass is wasted. The principal obstruction in the estuary of the Pass is a bar, stretching across the channel, just at the upper end of the middle ground or delta. This delta divides the water into two branches, known as the East and West Passes or channels, which are formed by the young flood's being opposed in its passage up by the force of the river current coming down. This current being strongest in the centre, the young flood makes its way along the banks where it meets with less resistance, and thus produces the lateral channels. To the centre between these channels an eddy is created by the op-

position of the ascending and descending currents, which causes the formation of the shoal delta, termed "the middle ground." The delta being thus in the centre, and shelving or sloping off on either side, tends still more to force the currents towards the banks, which, from the character of the material of which they are composed, become readily subject to abrasion. Hence the gradual expansion of the surface of the Pass at the mouth, which is still further increased by the scour or wash of the waves during the storms incidental to that coast.

The first advance of the flood tide is somewhat like the operation of a wedge. It creeps up under the descending waters of the river, elevating them, until, aided by the momentum from behind, it opposes greater resistance, dams them up, and then reverses them, making high water in the upper course of the river by the reverse action of the land water. The ebb tide being composed of the salt water that comes up on the flood plus the river water ponded back, and that which continues to flow down during the ebb, it, consequently, follows that the mechanical effect produced on the bottom of the channel by the ebb-tide must be much greater than any that can be occasioned by the flood. If the tidal waters which enter the Pass were to advance up a gradually narrowing channel of proper breadth, they would preserve their momentum in a great degree by the sustained pressure of the larger body of water behind, while the gradually shelving sides of the channel would impel the waters towards the line of current, or mid-channel, which result in the improved channel during the flood, would be followed by a similar effect on the current during the ebb, thus operating in a direction favorable to the ingress and egress of vessels. Although the depth of the sailing channel and its maintenance are mainly owing to the superior quantity and energy of the back water, or to the preponderating strength of the waters on the ebb, yet it has been proposed to substitute for the Pass a ship canal from near Fort Jackson to the Gulf, in order to dispense with the improvement of the momentum and scouring power of the Pass on the ebb, thus retaining for the canal only the outer disturbing causes, so as to give them uncontrolled sway to fill or back them up. Such a measure would be the more to be regretted, as the South West Pass is remarkably susceptible of improvement at an inconsiderable outlay. It is only necessary to increase, by proper means, the inner power, so as to hold in check the outer disturbing causes.

That the supply of the matter that causes the obstruction or bars in the channel is from the interior, and that the power of the ebb to discharge it into the Gulf, is far greater than that of the flood to return it, are evident, from the very fact, that the back water maintains a depth of fourteen feet on the bar at common high tide. The theory, therefore, which assures that the deposits in the estuary of the Pass are from the Gulf, and not from the interior *cannot be correct*, unless it be assured and proved that nature reverses her laws of relative power and makes *the weaker agent, in effect, the stronger*. The

depth of the navigable channel is entirely and exclusively dependent upon the preponderating effect derived from the discharge of the back water. The system of improvement should, therefore, be such as would convert the back water, by artificial means, into a *regulated and energetic current, which would scour down the bottom of the improved channel.* The power of the stream to remove and carry along detritus is greater or less in proportion to the volume of water, the inclination of the surface, and the resisting power of the bed. The greater the scouring power, the easier and faster is the transportation of the detritus. The volume of water may be increased, and the retarding forces may be decreased, but the inclination of the surface, which depends upon the rise and fall of the tide, cannot be altered by works of improvement. The direction of the line of current should be laid out with the view of bringing the flood and ebb-tides into one and the same track, and in favour of an easy ingress and egress of vessels. The bed of the estuary being composed of detrital matters of the finest kind, the line of current may be easily turned by works of improvement.

The bar marks the balance of power between two forces: that of the Gulf, which heaps up material and closes the Pass, on the one hand, and that of the ebbing tide, in conjunction with the river water, which sweeps away the impediments and keeps open the channel, on the other. The changes to which the bar is liable result from the alternate preponderance of the one or the other of these powers. To this preponderance of one power must be attributed the fact that the water on the bar is deeper when the river is low and confined within its banks. To this condition of the river the mechanical effect of the ebb-tide on the bottom of the channel is greater than that of the river floods, which cause the waters to spread over the low banks of the Pass and thus dissipate their scouring power.

The greater the quantity of water that passes up the channel on the flood, the stronger will be the current on the ebb, and the less the quantity the weaker the current, and the less the scouring power also. A decrease of back water and scouring power must be followed, as a certain effect, by a decrease of depth.

At a low stage of the Mississippi when the momentum of the river is reduced, the propagation of the flood-tide extends farther up the channel than at a high stage when it meets a downward current of greater momentum. Therefore an increase in the momentum of the river current is always followed by a retardation of that propagation. The improvement of the estuary of the Pass would have the effect of increasing the velocity of the flood tide, and, consequently, the amount of back water; because the bar not only tends to pond back the fresh water, but also to a partial exclusion of the tide waters. If, therefore, the bar were removed, the flood tide would begin to flow earlier, and a much larger body of water would flow up the channel.

Dredging is not the proper means to be resorted to for removing the bar, and increasing the depth of the water. The excavation made

by the dredge disturbs for a time the equilibrium between the current and the channel, but this is speedily restored by a fresh supply of material, filling up the vacant space and leaving the bar in the same condition as before. The propelling power of the surface wave being felt at a considerable depth, the lash or stroke of the wave, during high winds, sweeps the detrital matter along the bottom, retards or checks the velocity of the affluent water, and assists also the progress of silting up the pools or marshes made by the dredge.

After the Pass has been regulated by works of improvement with a view to bring the flood tide and the ebb tide into one and the same track, and to admit a greater cubical volume of tidal water into the Pass, it might, nevertheless, become useful or necessary to have recourse to dredging, in order to expedite the improvement, or to remove from the improved channel materials which resisted the increased scouring power. The back-water is the most effective agent that can be employed for the augmentation of the depth of the channel, and this may be effected without offering any violent opposition to nature, but merely by regulating and assisting her operations. Every particle of water that comes down the pass is useful for purposes of scouring, and the injury done by any diminution of the power which scours the Pass is not simply in proportion to the quantity abstracted, but it is in a far greater proportion. The lateral outlets leading from the Pass diminish the quantity of water in the channel, and thus waste a portion of the natural power of the current. These outlets should be closed, and the channel reduced to a proper breadth and directions, which would afford the greatest amount of scouring power to any given volume and velocity.

Charles Ellet, Jr., Civil Engineer, states, in his report of 1851 on the improvement of the navigation across the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi river, that "there are many parts of the river where the speed of the current does not extend two and a-half miles, or even two miles per hour, in times of flood, and where it is, notwithstanding, more than 100 feet deep."

"I measured the velocity of the current on the bar of the Pass à L'Outre, and found it to vary at different times and places from three to three and a half feet per second."

"I measured it also repeatedly on the southwest bar, and found there three feet per second."

It is to be presumed that the writer of the above extracts was perfectly well aware that the scouring power of a river depends upon the depth and velocity together, therefore it is not at all strange nor remarkable, but rather perfectly consistent, and in accordance with the principles of Hydredgnomics, that the velocity of the water on the southwest Pass, where the depth is only 14 feet, should be greater than in a part of the river where it is more than 100 feet deep.

The only proper system for improving the navigation of the southwest Pass is *to make use of its own natural forces* in conformity with the fundamental laws of hydraulic motion.

All the investigations hitherto made convince us that the improvement of the southwest Pass, or any other of the passes, is of easy and certain accomplishment by a steady adherence to correct principles. If we act in this matter fairly, judiciously and wisely, we do not fear that any measure will henceforth be adopted by the authorities in charge of the improvement injurious to the interests of the navigation of the Pass or Passes.

ALBERT STEIN.

MOBILE, January 1st, 1866.

ARTICLE VIII.—THE GROWTH OF NEW YORK.

It would be difficult to find a subject presenting more forcibly the reality of American life, or a subject more comprehensive of the genius of American character, than the one to which we propose to devote this article. New-York is a cosmopolitan city, but it is no less eminently American—as America is representative of the world's civilization, the embodiment of its spirit, and the most complete type of its progress.

But a little more than two hundred and fifty years have elapsed since a small vessel of some eight tons burthen, manned by from sixteen to twenty men, brought the first white adventurers inside the beautiful harbor now known as New York Bay. Well might those on board the "Half Moon," as the little pioneer yacht slowly worked her way up to and past the island of Man-a-hatta, as the Delawares called it, have thought it "a very good land to fall in with, and a pleasant for to see." For considerations of which they never dreamed was the land a good one to fall in with, though there are, indeed, but few localities in a latitude so far north with so many natural attractions as here met the eyes and forced the commendations of the dull Hollanders. Had the "Mayflower," with her unbending Puritans found these shores, instead of the bleak and cheerless earth and sky which met them at Plymouth, possibly history would have been saved its saddest chapter in the record of republics, as a more bountiful nature might have softened those asperities of character, which, with others perhaps no less censurable, have had such unhappy influence in our national history. But it was the steady, tenacious, persevering and obtuse Knickerbockers and Van Twillers and Van Tromps, who were best fitted to form the groundwork on which might be engrafted the steady flow of incomers who were to form the present Empire City of the Western Hemisphere.

Through all changes in the history of New York this distinctive element of Teutonic origin, modified and improved by two centuries of ceaseless immigration, and by commercial contact with the people of every part of the world, has been prominent and controlling. From the time when the two Dutch burghers lost their tempers in a dispute as to whether "ye towne" should have docks built into the river on the shores of the island, or whether there should be canals cut through the streets, as in old Amsterdam, until the present day this element has continually manifested itself in every stage of the city's progress. No thought of the city they were building ever entered the minds of these worthy citizens, as was so conspicuously the case with their neighbors of the city of Brotherly Love, who laid out their streets so regularly, and made such ample provision for architectural display. As one consequence of the peculiar notions of the original city fathers, Broad street, forming with Wall street the financial center of the continent, and on which the magnificent Stock Exchange has recently been erected, was planned of its present ample width originally to accommodate a canal which in early times ran through the center of the street; so also Pearl Street excites the curiosity of strangers from its semicircular course, while few know that it was started by the huts of traders built around the first fort on the island, and extended still farther in a

circle to avoid a swamp on the ancient site of which is now located one of the wealthiest trade interests of the city. Thus, in every stage of the earlier years of the city's history, as is so often the case at present, temporary convenience and individual profit took the place of a broader spirit looking to a higher end. Thus has arisen the too true assertion that a true New-Yorker always measures a man by the weight of his pocket-book, or his credit at the bank, while principle and character are of decidedly secondary importance. Well was it for the city that Broadway—a street which has not its equal in the world—was necessarily built in a straight line, from the conformation of the land rather than the thoughtfulness of its original builders. Now it surpasses in wealth and magnificence the most famous thoroughfares of London and Paris, and each year adds to its splendor and attractiveness.

It was not, however, until the commercial interests of the city were freed from an enforced dependence upon England, by the Revolution, that the rapid advancement of New York, in wealth and importance, was such as to attract particular attention. Seventy years after the first discovery, in 1678, Governor Andros reported to the British Government, that "A merchant worthe £1,000 or £500 is accounted a good substantiall merchant, and a planter worthe halfe that in moveables is accounted rich; all estates may be valued at about £150,000; there may lately have traded to ye colony in a yeare from term to fifteen shippes or vessels of about together 100 tunns each, English, New England, and oure own built, of which five small ships and a ketch now belong to New York, four of them built there." Slow as this progress was, however, it is not an unfair illustration of the subsequent growth of the city until after the independence of the colonies, when commenced that marvelous advancement which has been no less the wonder of the world, than it is a proof of American energy and enterprise.

POPULATION OF NEW YORK, FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES.

Year.	Population.	Increase in stated periods.		Increase per annum.
1628....270..	[14 Years from Landing.]	
1648....1,000..	Increase in 20 years,	780..
1674....3,000..	26 "2,000..77
1678....3,430..	4 "430..108
1703....4,436..	25 "1,000..40
1712....5,840..	9 "1,400..150
1723....7,243..	11 "1,400..130
1731....8,622..	8 "1,400..175
1737....10,664..	6 "2,000..330
1746....11,717..	9 "1,000..110
1756....13,040..	10 "1,300..130
1771....21,863..	15 "8,800..600
1786....23,614..	15 "2,000..130
1790....33,131..	4 "10,000..2,500
1800....60,489..	10 "27,000..2,700
1810....95,519..	10 "35,000..3,500
1820....123,706..	10 "28,000..2,800
1830....203,007..	10 "80,000..8,000
1840....312,710..	10 "109,000..10,900
1850....515,394..	10 "214,000..21,400
1855....629,810..	5 "114,000..22,400
1860....805,658..	5 "176,000..35,200

It would be impossible, within the limits of this article, to trace, in detail, the development of the various interests which have contributed to build up and sustain this great metropolis. To its natural commercial advantages—being only two hours distant from the Atlantic Ocean, in a geographical position central to the manufacturing, and a large part of the agricultural interests of the

whole country, as they have hitherto been developed, have been added all the artificial advantages of railroad and canal which capital could supply, through which the granaries of the west and northwest have poured their treasures, and the products of the Middle States have largely found their markets. This has necessarily brought here, in return, the products of other countries, so that in very many articles the importations are made exclusively at New York, and the receipts for customs at this port alone have frequently amounted to seven-eighths of the receipts for the whole United States.

Probably the Erie Canal, opened in 1825, almost the first in that great system of internal improvements now so fully developed over the whole country, bringing New York in direct water communication with the great chain of northern lakes, and thence with the entire northwestern country, was one of the most important elements in the rapid growth of the city. Yet the Erie Canal has now become of secondary importance, so largely do the railway facilities of communication with every part of the West interfere with its traffic.

The figures on the preceding page, representing the increase in population, both by the year, and for stated periods, from the earliest times to the census of 1860, best illustrate the next active periods of the city's growth. We do not give the figures of the last State census, or 1865, but just taken, from its manifest incorrectness in every particular, and on account of the grave charges brought against the State Government of conniving at false returns for partisan ends, which stand as yet unrefuted. This is more particularly to be regretted from the additional interest which would attach to a true record of the city's growth, during a period of such excitement and such radical change in many of its leading interests in consequence of the War.

In 1847, the State appointed Commissioners of Emigration, who have furnished some interesting statistics relative to the arrivals at this port since that time. It is impossible to determine the population of these immigrants who have made their home in New York, and thus contributed to the growth of the City; but far the larger portion of them have gone west immediately on their arrival. We present the official return of arrivals up to and including those of 1864:

ALIEN EMIGRANTS ARRIVED AT NEW YORK, FROM MAY 5, 1847,
TO DECEMBER 31, 1864.

Year.	Ireland.	Germany.	England.	Other Nationalities.	Total.
1847....	..52,946..	..53,180..	...8,864..	...15,072..	...129,062
1848....	...91,061..	..51,973..	...23,062..	...16,080..	...182,176
1849....	...112,591..	..55,705..	...28,321..	...23,986..	...220,603
1850....	...117,038..	..45,535..	...28,163..	...22,060..	...212,796
1851....	...163,306..	..69,919..	...28,553..	...26,823..	...289,601
1852....	...118,131..	..118,611..	...31,551..	...32,696..	...300,989
1853....	...113,164..	..119,644..	...27,126..	...25,011..	...284,945
1854....	...82,302..	..176,986..	...30,578..	...29,357..	...319,223
1855....	...43,043..	..52,892..	...22,938..	...17,360..	...136,233
1856....	...44,276..	..56,113..	...23,787..	...18,139..	...142,315
1857....	...57,119..	..80,974..	...28,622..	...17,027..	...183,742
1858....	...25,075..	..31,874..	...12,324..	...9,310..	...78,583
1859....	...32,652..	..28,270..	...10,375..	...7,969..	...79,266
1860....	...47,330..	..37,899..	...11,361..	...8,533..	...105,123
1861....	...25,784..	..27,139..	...5,632..	...7,004..	...65,539
1862....	...32,217..	..27,740..	...7,975..	...8,374..	...76,306
1863....	...92,157..	..35,002..	...18,757..	...10,928..	...156,844
1864....	...89,399..	..57,446..	...23,710..	...11,741..	...182,296

Already there are indications that a large part of this tide of foreign immigration, will, in the future, find their home in the broad and fertile fields of the

South, where the obstacles to be overcome by the industrious settler are fewer, and the return more speedy and abundant. Whether this will materially lessen the arrivals at New York may well be doubted, as it will be a work of years for any southern city to overcome the great preëminence which New York has already attained.

The disastrous effect of the late war upon the shipping interests of New York, resulting in the transfer of a large part of the tonnage to the protection of neutral flags, renders any statistics, in regard to the present amount of tonnage, extremely unsatisfactory, and they would not fairly represent the prominence of that interest. We give a comparative statement of the tonnage of the City, State and United States, up to 1861:

Year.	Tonnage. City built.	Tonnage owned in			
		City.	State.	All other States.	United States.
1815..	...11,754..	...278,869..	...287,428..	..1,080,700..	..1,368,128
1821..	...6,892..	...236,160..	...249,167..	..1,049,791..	..1,298,958
1831..	...15,738..	...286,439..	...300,840..	...967,006..	..1,267,846
1841..	...16,121..	...438,014..	...486,854..	..1,643,890..	..2,130,744
1851..	...71,214..	...931,194..	..1,041,016..	..2,731,424..	..3,772,440
1856..	...49,317..	..1,328,036..	..1,508,810..	..3,362,842..	..4,871,652
1861..	...33,122..	..1,539,355..	..1,740,943..	..3,798,870..	..5,539,813

It is as the money-centre of the country, however, that the importance of New York for the last few years has been most directly felt. The searching character of the Internal Revenue law has developed an aggregate amount of transactions in this department almost beyond all belief, and for the past three or four years they have been without a parallel in history. The sales of the brokers alone, for the fiscal year ending June 30, amounted to \$5,989,625,593, or more than twice the amount of our National Debt, and yielding a revenue to the Government of three and a-half millions of dollars. The capital of the private bankers for the same period was set down at a fraction under seven millions; and, so great has been confidence throughout the country in New York bankers, that, with this capital, their deposits were but little short of two hundred millions.

In conclusion, we present a brief synopsis of the transactions of the Associated Banks, through the Clearing House, from October 11, 1853, to May 11, 1865.:

EXCHANGES.

October 11, 1853, to October 1, 1854...	\$ 5,750,455,987 06
“ “ “ 1855...	5,362,912,098 38
“ “ “ 1856...	6,906,213,328 47
“ “ “ 1857...	8,333,226,718 06
“ “ “ 1858...	4,756,664,386 09
“ “ “ 1859...	6,448,005,956 01
“ “ “ 1860...	7,231,143,056 69
“ “ “ 1861...	5,915,742,758 05
“ “ “ 1862...	6,871,443,591 20
“ “ “ 1863...	14,867,597,848 60
“ “ “ 1864...	24,097,196,655 92
October 1, 1864, to May 1, 1865...	15,773,924,497 10

Total exchanges	\$112,314,526,881 63
Total balances, same period.....	5,269,818,653 90

Total transactions	\$117,584,3455,35 53
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ART. IX.—DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

THE fertility of the South, and the remarkable adaptability of its soil to a great variety of products, has, under the old system, been almost entirely lost sight of in the overshadowing importance of the great staples, which added so largely to the wealth of the country, by increasing the value of its exports. A new system now obtains, and a new status has been inaugurated under which the changes will be manifold. While we cannot doubt that cotton, tobacco, sugar and rice will continue the prominent objects of agricultural enterprise where the freedmen are employed, yet the tide of emigration, which will surely tend towards this promising field of industry, will introduce a new element, hitherto almost unknown, the farmer. For this class, there is great encouragement in the fact, which cannot be controverted, that there is no prominent crop of the North which, at the South, will not yield to equal labor, certainly as great if not more abundant returns, while this additional inducement is held out, that a few years of observation and experience will enable them to wrest from mother earth, in the snowy fleeces of the cotton field, an exchangeable product to which the great centres of trade are ever open. But, while our farmer is acquiring the knowledge which in due time will convert him into the planter, his "clearing" cannot remain idle, and it is the mission of scientific agriculture to investigate, to suggest, and to direct, so that capital and labor may be skillfully and profitably employed. We invite and solicit communications having for their object the development of new products, or the improvement of those well known; and we present in this number the first of a series of articles on the culture of the sugar-beet, and the manufacture of beet-sugar, to be followed by others, which will exhaust the subject.

In this connection we remark that the "Germania Beet Company" have established a sugar factory at Chatsworth, Ill., which seems a decided success. They are possessed of some half-dozen sections of land; two hotels and fifty houses for the accommodation of their hands are in process of erection; a coal shaft is being sunk; three hundred additional laborers and mechanics have been engaged in Germany, and the arrangements indicate the manufacture of beet-sugar on a scale of magnitude hitherto unknown on this side of the Atlantic. They expect to employ in the operations of next season no less than eighty teams of mules and fifty teams of oxen.

1.—SUGAR-BEET AND BEET-SUGAR.—No. 1.

BY JOHN RUHM, OF TENNESSEE.

The process by which sugar is extracted from the common beet (*beta vulgaris*) was discovered at a time which gave little hope for the improvement of that invention. It was during the reign of the "Great Frederick" that one of his subjects found in the beet plant (*mangold wurzel*), until then cultivated only as an esculent, excellent material for the manufacture of sugar; but the monarch, absorbed in the duties of the field and cabinet, in disciplining his people through his army, or in pursuits of literature and the fine-arts, found no time to encourage the invention. For fifty years the matter slumbered, but was finally revived in France by one Achard, and its manufacture persevered in, until, under successive improvements, it has now become the sugar in common use in all parts of France, Germany, Belgium and Switzerland. In these countries, beet-sugar is manufactured to such an extent, that millions of operatives are employed in the various processes, and the price has fallen so low, that the poorest man can freely use what, not more than twenty years ago, was considered a luxury within reach only of the wealthier classes of the population.

It was while the manufacture of beet-sugar was yet in its infancy, that the important discovery of discoloration with animal charcoal was first made known. This process enables the manufacturer to produce an article of great purity, which will compare favorably with the best specimens from the cane.

Subsequent progress in chemical aids, and in the construction and adaptation of machinery, has brought the manufacture to its present completeness, which, it is thought, cannot be surpassed.

We cannot overrate the importance of this branch of industry, and of its beneficial influences on the laboring classes of society. The raw material is a product of the home soil, giving employment in its culture to a large number of laborers. The buildings and machinery required put in motion a multitude of various powers, and open a fruitful field to their activity. A large capital is employed in the general management, which directly and indirectly distributes itself first, and its gains afterwards, amongst mechanics and laborers of every description. Nor can it be overlooked that the business connected with the manufacture of beet-sugar creates "values" where none were *known* previously to exist. The manufactured article is not only a new value itself, but many of the requirements necessary for its production owe their origin as "values" entirely to the process through which the raw material passes in its manufacture. Instance: fossil fuel, animal coal, certain metals and chemicals, and many other novel wants incident to discoloration and refining. Then there are constantly recurring wants for wood, leather, linen, wool, paper, animal fats, &c., &c. Indeed, it would be difficult to mention a single branch of industry not practically benefited by the operations of the smallest establishment for the manufacture of beet-sugar; and in these varied requirements, thousands of hands are usefully and profitably employed, that otherwise might find little or no occupation.

Nor is it the least important feature in this branch of industry to consider the inestimable benefits accruing to the soil from the proper cultivation of the sugar-beet. The raw material consumed in the manufacture of beet-sugar is a product of agriculture requiring particular care and attention, and will not yield as expected without a thoroughly cultivated and well-tilled soil. Those who do not think it necessary to bestow peculiar pains upon the raising of the plant will incur heavy disappointments in the returns; while those who bend their energies to the production, on scientific principles, giving to it that degree of labor, manuring and thorough handling, which will be shown to be absolutely requisite, will have their reward, not only in the yield of that crop to which it was given directly, but also in the abundance of succeeding fruits, which will yield more bountifully for it. Positive experience has established that large farms devoted for a few years to the raising of beets in a rational manner, have gained largely in productive capacity, and have gradually, but surely, become enriched to a surprising extent. The "acre" is the most thankful and surest debtor for the capital of intelligence; labor, time and money thoughtfully expended by the farmer in its development, is a sure investment; and we do not hesitate to assert that the "acre" will prove itself in the highest degree grateful to that farmer who exhausts his agricultural knowledge in the cultivation of the sugar-beet.

Extended observation at the South, embracing soil, climate and seasons, has convinced the writer that the introduction and encouragement of this new branch of agriculture and manufacture, would be lastingly beneficial to the Southern States. Keeping in view the amount of capital which will be necessarily involved, the manifold productions of home-soil required, and the number of hands provided with remunerative labor, the encouragement to emigration, and many other results, which will appear in future articles, we feel that we are doing a public service in directing attention to this matter, and have prepared a series of papers on the following subjects, viz., "Choice of Soil," "Culture of the Beet," "Anatomical Structure," "Substances," "Saccharimetry" (which is the knowledge of ascertaining the amount of sugar in the saccharine solution), "Sugar, its kinds, qualities, and the plants from which it is produced," "The Mechanical Parts of Sugar Manufacture," "The Chemical Parts of same," "Statistical Comparison," &c., which we have aimed to make both interesting and instructive.

We close this introductory article by remarking that the refuse of the

sugar-beet will be found an invaluable material for fattening stock of all kinds, especially cattle, sheep and hogs.

2.—PRODUCTION OF INDIAN CORN IN THE PRINCIPAL CORN-GROWING STATES IN 1840, 1850, AND 1860.

States.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Illinois.....	22,634,211.....	57,646,984.....	115,174,777
Missouri.....	17,032,524.....	36,214,537.....	72,892,157
Ohio.....	33,668,144.....	59,078,695.....	73,543,190
Indiana.....	28,155,337.....	52,964,363.....	71,588,919
Kentucky.....	39,847,120.....	58,672,591.....	64,043,033
Tennessee.....	44,986,188.....	52,276,223.....	52,089,926
Iowa.....	1,406,241.....	8,656,799.....	42,410,686
Virginia.....	34,577,591.....	35,254,319.....	38,319,999
Alabama.....	20,947,004.....	28,754,048.....	33,226,282
Georgia.....	20,905,122.....	30,080,099.....	30,776,293
North Carolina.....	23,893,763.....	27,941,051.....	30,078,564
Mississippi.....	13,161,237.....	22,446,552.....	29,067,682
Pennsylvania.....	14,240,022.....	19,835,214.....	28,106,821
New York.....	10,972,256.....	17,858,400.....	20,061,049

3.—STATISTICS OF AMERICAN AGRICULTURE.

Mr. Newton, the Commissioner, has reported to Congress some interesting facts in relation to our Agriculture. From these, it would seem that the average size of farms, in the United States in 1860, was 199 acres, or double the average size in Great Britain, notwithstanding the immense properties of her Nobles. The farms of Massachusetts average 94 acres; of New York, 106; of Ohio, 117. The results of some of the other States are as follows:

	Acres of improved lands.	Acres of unimproved lands.	No. of farms.	Average No. of acres in each farm.
Delaware.....	637,065.....	367,230.....	6,638.....	151
Maryland.....	2,002,267.....	1,833,304.....	24,494.....	190
Virginia.....	11,437,821.....	12,679,215.....	92,605.....	324
North Carolina.....	6,517,284.....	17,245,685.....	75,203.....	316
South Carolina.....	4,572,060.....	11,623,859.....	33,171.....	488
Georgia.....	8,162,758.....	18,587,732.....	62,003.....	430
Florida.....	634,213.....	2,266,015.....	6,568.....	444
Alabama.....	6,385,724.....	12,718,821.....	55,128.....	346
Mississippi.....	5,065,755.....	10,773,929.....	42,840.....	370
Louisiana.....	2,707,108.....	6,591,468.....	17,328.....	536
Texas.....	2,650,781.....	22,693,247.....	42,391.....	591
Arkansas.....	1,983,313.....	7,590,393.....	39,004.....	245
Tennessee.....	6,795,337.....	13,873,827.....	82,368.....	251
Kentucky.....	7,644,208.....	11,519,053.....	90,814.....	
Missouri.....	6,246,871.....	13,737,939.....	92,792.....	
Total.....	74,362,565	171,101,718	764,867	

The leading Grain Crops are given as follows:

Bushels.	1863.	1864.	1863.
Wheat.....	148,552,829.....	160,695,823.....	179,404,036
Rye.....	19,543,905.....	19,872,975.....	20,782,782
Barley.....	11,391,286.....	10,632,178.....	11,368,155
Oats.....	225,252,295.....	176,690,064.....	173,800,575
Corn.....	704,427,853.....	530,581,403.....	451,967,959
Buckwheat.....	18,331,019.....	18,700,540.....	15,806,455
Potatoes.....	101,032,095.....	96,267,888.....	100,158,670
Total.....	1,228,501,382.....	1,013,429,871.....	953,288,632

Hay, tons.....	53,538,740.....	18,116,751.....	19,736,847
Tobacco, lbs.....	183,316,953.....	197,468,229.....	267,267,920

4.—PROFITS OF COTTON GROWING.

There are a number of Companies and Agencies established in the Northern cities, with the view of inducing Capital and Immigration to the prolific agricultural regions of the South. The purpose is a good one, and we look to these associations as important auxiliaries in reviving the drooping fortunes of our people, and would give them all the aid which is possible. We are of the opinion still that much may be effected by the State Legislatures, acting in conjunction, as explained in our letter to Governor Perry, of South Carolina, published in the January number of the *Review*. So far as we can learn, the Legislature of Tennessee is the only one that has acted in the premises.

In the circular of the *American Land Company*, which is before us, an attempt is made to give in detail the expenses and probable profits of a plantation working one hundred hands, in ordinary years. Without criticizing the figures too severely, it may be admitted without hesitation, that upon the basis of past results, and with cotton at 30 cents per pound much more than the minimum and very likely the maximum profit, arrived at in the circular, may be certainly counted upon. We give the figures:

The following table shows the expenses incurred, and the profits received, in and from the cultivation of 1,250 acres of land—1,000 in Cotton, and 250 in Corn:

EXPENSES.

100 hands, at \$10 per month.	\$12,000	Overseer's Wages.....	2,000
100 barrels of Pork, at \$40..	4,000	Assistant Overseer's Wages..	800
40 barrels of Molasses, at \$40	1,600	Medicines, Medical Attend-	
Clothing for 100 hands at \$50	5,000	ance, &c.....	1,500
50 first-class Mules, at \$150..	7,500	Carpenter's Tools, Cooking	
Wagons and Farming Imple-		Utensils, &c.....	1,000
ments	3,500	Lumber.....	1,000
Oxen and Cows.....	1,500	Incidentals.....	1,500
5,000 bushels of Corn, at \$1..	5,000	Fee Simple of Land, at \$20	
Hay and Fodder.....	1,500	per acre.....	25,000
			<hr/>
			\$74,400

PROFITS.

1,000 bales of Cotton—400		Fee Simple of Land.....	25,000
lbs. each—at 30 cents.....	\$120,000		
7,500 bushels of Corn, at \$1..	7,500		<hr/>
50 Mules, at \$100 each.....	5,000	Deduct Expenses.....	\$159,000
Oxen and Cows.....	1,000		<hr/>
Carpenter's Tools, &c.....	500	Nett Profits.....	\$84,600

Say but half of the above crop—200 pounds to the acre—is made, and the profits would still be \$24,600, or almost the cost of the land, which, with the certain development of the South, must increase in value.

5.—WHAT THE COTTON INDUSTRY REQUIRES.

We find in the "New Orleans Prices Current" an excellent article pointing out very truthfully the only path which will lead to the restoration of the South, and with the reestablishment of the National Commerce and Finances. The writer has evidently a profound knowledge of the subject upon which he writes and clearly perceives the exact state of the South. He says that "the cotton bearing lands have been enriched, instead of exhausted by the war, and are at least as fertile as they ever were; that although there has been a serious reduction in the supply of suitable labor, there is still sufficient left to raise a

fair if not as ample a crop as before the war ; that to effect this object two conditions are essential ; viz, first, that the laborers be induced or compelled to work ; second, that the planters be provided with sufficient cash capital to meet the requisitions of the plantation up to the time of reimbursement by sales of the crop.

"The first of these two essential conditions may be accomplished by the action of the Federal Government through instructions to the Freedmen's Bureau to insist upon plantation freedmen making annual contracts with planters, and to see that such contracts are rigorously enforced, either by the agents of the Bureau alone, or by them in conjunction with State officers, acting under State laws. By this means the laborers may be *compelled* to work. We have no faith whatever in their being *induced* to do so by any of the motives, which ordinarily govern white laborers.

"The second condition may be realised by the prompt action of Northern capitalists. The planter owns the land, the various plantation buildings required for the shelter of his family and laborers, and a limited stock of animals and agricultural implements. He also requires, in addition, more animals and an increased supply of agricultural implements. He also requires the means of furnishing food and clothing to the laborers, for the whole period intervening, before gathering his crop and sending it to market, as well as that portion of the laborer's wages which the contract may make payable in money, monthly.

"Without the assistance of the Federal Government, in the manner indicated, no crop of any *magnitude* can be expected. Without the additional capital needed, not even the required supply of labor will be sufficient. In this event "the North, the East and the West" will suffer far more than the South. We have repeatedly shown that, in the production of cotton, much more than a moiety of it—we suppose nearly three-fourths—enures to the benefit of others than the planter.

"If those who desire that the South shall raise a *large* cotton crop will establish cotton banks in the Southern cities to aid the planter—one in New Orleans, for example, with a cash capital of \$20,000,000 to loan on cotton expectations, as our local banks did before the war, they will do more to ensure an ample cotton crop than by all the conventions they can assemble or resolutions they may pass."

6.—FREE LABOR IN TENNESSEE—COTTON.

We shall chronicle very faithfully the developments in Southern agriculture as they are reported by the public press. Though their reports are, for the most part, unfavorable, we are glad to find an occasional exception. "The Nashville Press and Times" furnishes one of these exceptions as the following extract will show:

"It may be a selfish suggestion, but the farmers of every portion of this State where cotton can be grown can make the disorder of their Southern neighbors their golden opportunity to produce a cotton crop of greater value than any four crops ever were to Tennessee before. The *experiment of free labor* (we beg pardon for the phrase,) has been crowned with perfect success throughout Tennessee wherever it has been applied to the production of cotton, as every cotton merchant will testify. In spite of a very dry season the yield has been very good, and the quality as good as was possible under disadvantageous circumstances. We do not think it probable that one-fourth of a cotton crop is likely from present appearances, to be raised in this country in 1866, and, this being the case, the price of this great staple must be highly remunerative. In 1861, when the tobacco farms of Virginia, Missouri and Maryland lay idle the farmers of Kentucky took advantage of the fact, and made that crop more profitable to them than it ever had been before, in spite of the embarrassments of war and the depredations of marauders. It arose from the single fact that Kentucky had almost a monopoly of the tobacco market, and could exact nearly her own price. The Tennessee cotton growers will enjoy a similar op-

portunity next year, if they only have the foresight to see it, and the practical sagacity to avail themselves of it by gaining and keeping the confidence of the laborers, who will do their part just and faithfully as their employers, and are justly entitled to the prompt payment of fair wages. Here is the turning point of the whole matter."

7.—RICE PRODUCT OF THE WORLD.

When will the United States become again a great rice grower and exporter, and when will the rice lands of Georgia, North and South Carolina, more prolific than those of the Nile, contribute their vast results to swell the teeming wealth of the Nation? What these results were the previous issues of the Review will show, and our "Industrial Resources," published in 1852, condensed all the material into some fifty or a hundred pages.

From a circular recently issued by a Bremen house we learn that to 30th September last, Asia contributed to Europe 156,287 tons against 323,692 the previous year. Of the Asiatic export for 1864-65, there were still afloat, on 1st November last 25,534, against 85,414 tons previous year. The Carolina crop was estimated at 7,000 casks, against 200,000 to 240,000 casks in former years. Of the new crop but little would find its way to New York, and none to Europe. Formerly the United States exported to Europe 40,000 to 50,000 tons of rice annually; now, Europe exports heavily to the United States. At latest advices, the Burmah and Arracan crop was in good order; from India the report was, to 30th October, that the Bengal crop had suffered heavy damage. Java is almost disappearing from the list of rice-producing countries; and China will again, this season, require a considerable portion of the rice crop of Burmah.

ART. X. — DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON, S. C.

The *Charleston Daily News*, one of the most enterprising of our Southern Exchanges, has published elaborate statistics of the commerce of Charleston for the quarter ending 31st December, 1865, which we would gladly give in full but for want of space. After speaking of the difficulty in compiling these tables, owing to defective methods of arrangement at the Custom House, the Editor adds:

By reference to the tables it will be seen that the value of foreign importations amount to \$166,333.

The duties on these imports were.....	\$ 83,543.95
Amount of dutiable goods warehoused.....	22,509.36
Amount of duties on goods withdrawn from warehouse.....	12,898.43
Value of exports to foreign countries.....	1,676,534.00
Value of exports to coastwise ports.....	3,529,785.00
Number of vessels engaged in foreign trade.....	35
Number of vessels engaged in coastwise trade.....	316

These figures indicate the revival of a commerce, which we confidently anticipate will increase and multiply until Charleston shall rank first among the cities of the South in the extent and value of her import and export trade.

Of the coastwise exports, which amounted to \$3,529,785, \$3,103,806 came to New York.

2.—COMMERCE OF MOBILE.

The Prices Current published at the office of the *Register and Advertiser*, Mobile, exhibits already the spirit and energy which characterized the work

before the war, and the commerce of the city, where we are now on a visit, is active and thriving.

IMPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES INTO THE PORT OF MOBILE TO DECEMBER 16, 1865.

Articles.	This week.	Previously.	Total. Last Season
Bagging.....pieces.....	37.....	2468.....	2505.....
Rope.....coils.....	374.....	7699.....	8073.....
Bacon.....hhds.....	32.....	2455.....	2487.....
Butter.....kegs.....	204.....	1842.....	2046.....
Beef.....bbls.....	10.....	1333.....	1343.....
Bran.....sacks.....	691.....	12179.....	12870.....
Cotton.....bales.....	10898.....	176607.....	187505.....
Coffee.....sacks.....	333.....	4753.....	5086.....
Corn—Ala. & Miss.....sacks.....	169.....	6786.....	6895.....
“ Western.....sacks.....	1560.....	32673.....	34233.....
Cheese.....boxes.....	802.....	7701.....	8503.....
Coal—Alabama.....tons.....	2.....	2.....	4.....
“ Phil. & Eng.....tons.....	75.....	3866.....	3941.....
Candles.....boxes.....	312.....	2868.....	3180.....
Flour.....bbls.....	2561.....	42559.....	45120.....
Hay.....bales.....	300.....	19955.....	20255.....
Hides.....bales.....	10.....	416.....	426.....
Lard.....kegs.....	137.....	3220.....	3357.....
Lime—Alabama.....bbls.....	450.....	450.....
“ Philadelphia.....hhds.....	3654.....	3654.....
Molasses.....bbls.....	95.....	1582.....	1677.....
Oats.....sacks.....	1511.....	40517.....	42028.....
Pork.....bbls.....	160.....	4728.....	4888.....
Potatoes.....bbls.....	948.....	15408.....	16356.....
Rice.....tierces.....	13.....	736.....	749.....
Soap.....boxes.....	401.....	3640.....	4042.....
Sugar.....hhds.....	150.....	1536.....	1686.....
Salt.....sacks.....	9920.....	90137.....	100057.....
Tobacco.....boxes.....	446.....	1763.....	2209.....
Whisky.....bbls.....	222.....	4890.....	5112.....

MOBILE—Exports of cotton from this Port from the first of September in the following years:

	Great Britain.	France.	Other Foreign Ports.	United States Ports.
1865.....	57970.....	3165.....	20.....	76393.....
1864.....	1.....
1863.....
1862.....
1861.....
1860.....	81943.....	23739.....	3128.....	46252.....
1859.....	99009.....	42948.....	6251.....	40912.....
1858.....	61487.....	49564.....	9274.....	27021.....
1857.....	22975.....	21013.....	2595.....	9152.....
1856.....	15656.....	15175.....	1470.....	43850.....
1855.....	39937.....	31269.....	5516.....	30435.....
1854.....	30998.....	16143.....	932.....	14103.....
1853.....	10776.....	5056.....	2871.....	27771.....
1852.....	55037.....	4563.....	2385.....	34995.....
1851.....	27925.....	8390.....	3444.....	20317.....
1850.....	27778.....	12448.....	9087.....	11962.....
1849.....	26897.....	12413.....	3185.....	15336.....

3.—COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

We are indebted for the following statistics to that venerable journal the *New Orleans Price Current*, which still continues to exhibit the energy and vigor of youth, and is one of the ablest publications of the kind in the world.

RECEIPTS FROM THE INTERIOR IN THE YEAR ENDING ON THE 31st AUGUST.

ARTICLES.	1884-85	1883-84	1882-83	ARTICLES.	1884-85	1883-84	1882-83
Apples..... bbls.	88902	89698	67416	Lard..... lbs. and bbls.	2981	18027	63784
Bacon, asst. cks &c.	18582	14980	48015	Lard..... kegs.	7808	9655	90699
Bacon..... bbls & bxs	4943	4482	5987	Lime, western, bbls.	14029	14641	58143
Bacon Hams..... hds.	1699	14039	87814	Lead..... pigs.	5	80	80961
Bacon in bulk..... lbs.	13361	39000	Lead, bar..... kegs.	1653
Bagging..... pieces.	6871	2208	21427	Molasses..... bbls.	18725	148460	819540
Bale Rope..... coils.	17876	14495	125429	Oats..... bbls & sks.	278988	785562	659550
Beans..... bbls.	12881	11555	8889	Onions..... bbls.	17552	18322	26401
Butter..... kegs.	21880	80989	88845	Oil, lard..... bbls.	2567	1162	9588
Butter..... bbls.	179	62	1866	Potatoes..... bbls.	81582	180615	297698
Bras..... sacks.	118314	44693	274277	Pork..... lbs. and bbls.	41795	67022	216528
Beef..... bbls and lbs.	26541	58983	44924	Pork..... hds.	580	1574
Beef, dried..... lbs.	6890	2500	98726	Pork in bulk..... lbs.	230000	8903500
Cotton..... bales.	271015	181044	225445	Porter and Ale, bls.	11604	8405	20940
Corn in ears..... bbls.	4170	40666	86092	Packing Yarn reels.	789	83	8748
Corn, shelled..... s'ks.	558978	410188	1723689	Skins, Deer, packs.	117	60	1542
Cotton Seed..... sacks.	18199	8799	Shot..... kegs.	17	225	4001
Cheese..... bxs.	26781	25744	92385	Sugar..... bbls.	9245	75153	195185
Candles..... bxs.	81717	42282	110405	Sugar..... bbls.	2045	8293	4803
Coal, western..... bbls.	994770	265298	2900000	Soap..... boxes.	36287	18846	12902
Dr'd Apples &c. "	1214	2025	70	Shingles..... M.	1061	58	7000
Flaxseed..... tierces.	425	55	1121	Staves..... M.	1907	846	10178
Flour..... bbls.	790824	899897	974840	Tallow..... bbls.	892	57	1025
Feathers..... bags.	5	986	Tobacco, leaf, hds.	2410	1263	80855
Glassware..... boxes.	2851	612	68879	Tobacco, chew, bxs.	18939	14184	14544
Hemp..... bales.	2859	903	4883	Tobacco..... bales.	79	96	274
Hides..... bales.	9951	22256	163568	Twine..... bundles.	2151	1899	3508
Hay..... bales.	226764	160956	152659	Whisky..... bbls.	21238	16615	185042
Iron, Pig..... tons.	60	643	Wheat..... bbls & sks.	2921	629	18116
Leather..... bundles.	8675	8358	6115				

4.—SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA.

	1864-65		1861-62	
Parishes	Number of plantations.	Crop Hds.	Number of plantations.	Crop Hds.
Orleans.....	1.....	26.....	5.....	1790
St. Bernard.....	7.....	361.....	19.....	6640
Plaquemine.....	29.....	2301.....	42.....	22483
Terrebonne.....	21.....	426.....	88.....	28839
Assumption.....	31.....	963.....	154.....	37766
Lafourche.....	7.....	118.....	76.....	29781
St. Charles.....	5.....	78.....	34.....	19191
St. John the Baptist.....	4.....	43.....	64.....	18843
St. James.....	13.....	267.....	88.....	34224
Ascension.....	19.....	1285.....	58.....	30722
Iberville.....	23.....	429.....	121.....	41921
Jefferson.....	8.....	303.....	23.....	11086
St. Mary.....	2.....	61.....	168.....	48779
Point Coupee.....	1.....	4.....	59.....	22565
West Baton Rouge.....	3.....	35.....	54.....	24697
East Baton Rouge.....	1.....	60.....	39.....	10949

16 Parishes.....175

6755.....1090.....389547

No returns were received from the following 8 parishes, but for reference we give their product for 1861-2.

Rapides.....	35.....	19537
Avoyelles.....	19.....	6121
W. Feliciana.....	13.....	5712
E. Feliciana.....	4.....	716
St. Martin.....	77.....	16088
Vermillion.....	8.....	907
Lafayette.....	6.....	1348
St. Landry.....	39.....	7902
	201.....	58411

5—IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS, FROM THE INTERIOR, FOR 10 YEARS
FROM THE 1ST SEPTEMBER TO THE 31st AUGUST, IN EACH YEAR.

ARTICLES.	1864-65	1865-64	1862-63	1861-62	1860-61	1859-60	1858-59	1857-58	1856-57	1855-56
Alcohol..... bbls.	956	1789	172	807	8198
Apples..... bbls.	35902	39693	30081	24127	74276	67416	43320	76952	86612	62459
Bacon, meat, cks &c	18562	14980	12433	4073	38188	45015	85491	85537	39127	86454
Bacon, bbls & bxs.	4942	4432	1853	681	6944	5987	8815	2143	8855	2732
Bacon Hams, hds.	1609	14059	12490	3420	25636	37314	37829	32451	32304	28751
Bacon in bulk..... lbs.	13861	754399	39000	10000	34383	7660	173760
Bagging..... pieces	6371	2208	42	1223	8554	21427	80400	35401	32928	33905
Bale Rope..... coils	17876	14495	3139	2455	49083	125429	127321	139276	112346	101531
Beans..... bbls.	12331	11555	12454	2098	10127	8889	7771	7678	3139	6758
Butter..... kegs	21380	30938	26178	5046	23447	38945	25113	39733	32945	33119
Butter..... bbls.	179	62	86	322	854	1506	547	1237	1060	1825
Bran..... sacks	113314	44093	38943	65746	230916	274277
Beef, bbls and tea	26541	53032	41355	13622	23389	44984	54554	32672	30638	61059
Beef, dried..... lbs.	6300	8500	6000	98726	27700	30450	30850	19010
La. & Mis. sales	241085	124182	18815	34504	1324849	1588947	1231942	1201739	1063355	1170638
Lake.....	4333	1001	1959	3511	8481	5072	6586	4137	4652
N. Ala. & Tenn	8555	249150	871653	317456	255692	277545	379494
Arkansas.....	229	701	168089	163389	104304	103842	30933	102154
Montgomery....	858	11551	28473	13540	19996	37031
Mobile.....	16776	647	606	48270	34179	50703	67451	41040	38542
Florida.....	690	5	13279	16335	6684	9100	4708	5186
Texas.....	7604	5214	890	30613	49036	35097	23936	17508	23601
Corn in ears..... bbls.	4170	40666	19698	22216	122644	36092	5000	62405	14713	41924
Corn, shelled, scks.	503273	410138	165220	315652	3383011	1722039	759438	1289665	1487051	1909095
Cotton Seed, sacks	18199	8729	510	258750	207555
Cheese..... bxs.	26731	35744	29236	3941	59429	95305	60533	44410	48979	42652
Candles..... boxes	31717	43262	29940	5265	46165	110405	84334	72133	74391	32859
Coal, western, bbls	994770	235298	1623000	2900000	2145000	2501000	1770000	957000
Dr'd Apples & bbs	1214	3025	3420	1262	1692	70	51	35	235	386
Flaxseed..... bbls.	425	55	20	16	459	1121	468	3809	630	3046
Flour..... bbls.	709524	399397	264601	281645	1009201	974340	1084975	1395742	1290597	1120774
Feathers..... bags	5	51	373	936	1373	886	523	773
Glassware..... boxes	2351	612	42	833	22143	68379	61029	20662	30559	30226
Hemp..... bales	2550	303	10	1602	4838	11220	18737	13008	16513
Hides.....	9951	22256	16931	11855	93756	163565	109232	108174	163546	151431
Hay..... bales	226764	170964	37570	40673	152173	152639	107141	84237	59361	14637
Iron, Pig..... tons	60	59	215	643	483	237	77	332
Leather..... bundles	3375	3258	2356	10340	9708	6115
Lard..... tes & bbls	2931	15027	9405	6069	39633	63734	73564	113970	103027	110713
Lard..... kegs	7303	9655	12032	4290	61237	90499	63592	93240	93550	33790
Lime western, bbls	14029	14641	15540	27612	40272	33143	27153	13343	28309	16551
Lead..... pigs	5	30	580	1967	23510	30964	75022	119147	18297	30624
Lead, bar..... kegs	25	36	1298	1633	410	1242	865	341
Molasses..... bbls	13723	143460	202616	401404	313200	313540	358715	339343	34169	285311
Oats..... bbls & sks	273933	735562	201919	45345	552733	659550	249736	563449	393171	587137
Onions..... bbls	17532	13322	11622	2419	26857	26401	22196	12133	14670	14477
Oil, linseed..... bbls	185	90	195	5	399	1020	598	208	10	163
Oil, castor..... bbls	95	86	422	50	389	571	1213	1472	956	1520
Oil, lard..... bbls	2507	1162	761	339	7772	9833	20377	12800	3074	10531
Pickle, kegs & bbls	3463	2173	2714	121	131	332	26	102	113	197
Potatoes..... bbls	13522	150615	157637	63260	257190	207668	123502	210451	74133	132556
Pork..... tes & bbls	41705	67022	50827	11452	213938	216523	266550	273450	243228	277341
Pork..... boxes	200	51	71	173	200	10924	6723
Pork..... hds.	7	370	1734	1374	2938	4330	2372	2503
Pork in bulk..... lbs.	280300	610219	2612776	3803500	5969550	7337291	3417340	7450384
Porter and Ale, bbs	11604	3405	2569	361	19515	20940	11466	6350	1733	1637
Packing Yarn coils	789	33	10	731	3743	1673	2061	1435	3314
Rice..... sacks	13443	22516	21090	23476	4761
Rosin..... bbls	1643	90	222	277	74558
Skins, Deer, packs	117	69	53	261	1542	2154	1712	794	406
Shot..... kegs	17	225	4	2590	4001	2375	1371	2745	3393
Sp's Turpentine bbs	147	19	25	2716	13425
Sugar..... hds.	9345	75153	32531	223356	174637	195135	257235	292733	62463	153319
Sugar..... bbls	2045	8233	8499	7907	5976	4308	5241	6020	3995	3526
Soap..... boxes	80237	13846	19664	8427	9201	12202	139352	9557	9538	10237
Shingles..... M.	1907	38	1475	3207	7000	6000	6100	6000	5000
Staves..... M.	1064	346	9	7635	10173	13706	11500	7000	467
Tallow..... bbls	332	58	792	603	1025	335	903	903	1195
Tobacco, leaf, hds.	2410	1363	155	1063	34392	30955	75925	37141	55067	56090
Tobacco, chew, bxs	13939	14154	4619	6366	3864	14544	9203	3006	3261	3509
Tobacco..... bales	79	96	44	315	134	274	112	121	151	109
Twine..... bundles	2151	1399	1263	103	2573	3503	4233	4603	2932	3693
Wool..... bags	573	230	5	3855	2171
Whiskey..... bbls	21243	10615	747	1760	93352	135042	122915	123207	179164	145753
Wheat..... bbls & sks	2024	529	335	36411	71679	13116	29535	401275	773962	569524

6.—COTTON STATISTICS, 1855-1865.

	Total Crop. Bales.	Rec. at New Orleans. Bales.	Average Price. Cts. p. lb.
1855-56.....	3,527,845.....	1,759,293.....	9
1856-57.....	2,939,519.....	1,513,247.....	12½
1857-58.....	3,113,963.....	1,678,616.....	11½
1858-59.....	3,851,481.....	1,774,298.....	11½
1859-60.....	4,675,770.....	2,255,448.....	10½
1860-61.....	3,700,000.....	1,849,312.....	11
1861-62.....	38,880.....	10
1862-63.....	22,078.....	55½
1863-64.....	131,044.....	85
1864-65.....	271,015.....	69½

Seasons.	Receipts at New Orleans.	Average Price per Bale.	Total Value.
1853-54.....	1,440,779.....	\$38 00.....	\$54,749,602
1854-55.....	1,284,768.....	40 00.....	51,390,720
1855-56.....	1,759,293.....	40 00.....	70,371,720
1856-57.....	1,513,247.....	57 00.....	86,255,079
1857-58.....	1,678,616.....	52 50.....	88,127,340
1858-59.....	1,774,298.....	53 00.....	92,037,794
1859-60.....	2,255,448.....	48 50.....	109,389,228
1860-61.....	1,849,312.....	50 00.....	92,465,600
1861-62.....	38,880.....	45 50.....	1,769,040
1862-63.....	22,078.....	231 32.....	15,107,082
1863-64.....	131,044.....	356 20.....	46,677,872
1864-65.....	271,015.....	270 54.....	13,326,398

Total of 12 years..16,289,873.....\$817,225,507

Date of Receipt of First Bale.	Receipts of New Crop to September 1st.	Total Receipts at New Orleans.	Total Crop.
1853.. Aug. 9.....	74	1853-54..1,440,776.....	2,930,027
1854.. July 25.....	1,391	1854-55..1,784,768.....	2,847,639
1855.. July 26.....	29,283	1855-56..1,759,293.....	3,527,845
1856.. July 15.....	1,166	1856-57..1,513,247.....	2,939,519
1857.. Aug. 13.....	33	1857-58..1,678,616.....	3,113,962
1858.. July 25.....	4,834	1858-59..1,774,298.....	3,851,431
1859.. July 25.....	9,698	1859-60..2,255,448.....	4,675,770
1860.. July 5.....	36,670	1860-61..1,849,312.....	3,699,926
1861.. Aug. 11.....	61	1861-62.. 38,880	
1862.....	1862-63.. 22,078	
1863.. Sept. 7.....	1863-64.. 131,044	
1864.. Aug. 14.....	12	1864-65.. 271,015	
1865.. Aug. 11.....	22		

7.—OUR COTTON SUPPLIES.

We have all along maintained, against every interested argument or statement, that the cotton at the South, available for export, would not equal 2,000,000 bales, including the crop of 1865; and, after having made an extended tour throughout the entire cotton district, we can safely say that the crop of 1866 will by no possibility exceed 1,000,000 bales, if it even reach that figure.

The weight of the bales which are now going forward average much less than those of previous years, in consequence of wastage and stealage, and it may be questioned if 2,000,000 bales exceed in weight 1,800,000 before the war.

Having published our own cotton estimate, we give that of an intelligent correspondent of the *New York Times*.

THE COTTON QUESTION—THE STATEMENT OF MESSRS. NEILL BROS. & CO.

To the Editor of the New York Times.—In your paper of the 12th, reference is made to the cotton circular of Messrs. Neill Bros. & Co., and to their estimates of the total quantity of cotton to be delivered from the end of the rebellion until the crop of 1866 comes to market.

It must not be forgotten that Messrs. Neill Bros. & Co. are chiefly agents for English cotton buyers, and that England may be the purchaser of at least two-thirds of all the cotton now in this country. It will, therefore, be well to consider our position very carefully.

In their public circular of October 31, Messrs. Neill Bros. held out the expectation of 2,500,000 to 3,000,000 bales. They have now come down to 2,100,000 bales, which is 350,000 more than the estimate of the writer, based on a very careful investigation of the matter; but the case is strong enough on Messrs. Neill's final conclusion. We will, therefore, analyze it a little:

Messrs. Neill's estimate of old cotton on hand at end of rebellion and crop of 1865.....	2,100,000
Deduct the very small allowance made by them for damage.....	100,000
	<hr/> 2,000,000
Allow for Southern consumption for 18 months, from May 1st, 1865, to November 1, 1866, the actual amount consumed by the South in 12 months of 1860.....	150,000
	<hr/> 1,850,000
Actual consumption of the North, 6 months, from May 1, 1865, to November 1, 1865.....	260,000
	<hr/> 1,590,000
Allow for consumption at the North, from November 1, 1865, to November 1, 1866, three-fourths the capacity of the mills.....	600,000
	<hr/> 990,000
Actual export from May 1, 1865, to November 1, 1865.....	236,000
Estimated export in November.....	100,000—
	<hr/> 654,000

Thus it appears that unless we let too much cotton slip through our fingers under the present temporary pressure, caused by the urgent desire of the Southern owners to get their cotton out of the country before Christmas, when they fear trouble from the negroes, we shall have but 654,000 bales for all Europe for eleven months use, even if we clean out every bale; but, with the prospect of a very small crop in 1866, it is absurd to suppose that the commercial stock held by factors, merchants and speculators can run down to nothing, or to less than 100,000 bales, leaving 554,000 for export.

At the same time there is evidence that in consequence of the low prices prevailing last spring, the planting of cotton in India was curtailed at least 25 per cent.

Also the crop of Egypt, which is now being delivered, has fallen off about one-third. The last crop was 440,000 bales, of over 500 pounds each; this crop will not exceed 300,000 bales.

China and Japan have ceased to export cotton, but are importing cotton from India.

Cotton is our gold, and England should be made to pay its full gold value.

A high price for cotton gives the best security that can be given for peace and good order, with justice and good wages to the laborer in the Southern States.

E. A.

8.—PORK PACKING IN THE WEST FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Believing that it will be interesting to the trade to know the number of hogs packed in the West, as reported by the *Price Current* the past fifteen years, we have examined our files, and made up the following figures from them. It is evident that the returns were not as full as they should have been for the first three years, but the idea was then a new one, and a good deal of trouble was experienced in obtaining them.

Year.	No. of Hogs.	Year.	No. of Hogs.
1849-50.....	1,652,220	1857-58.....	2,210,778
1850-51.....	1,332,867	1858-59.....	1,465,552
1851-52.....	1,182,846	1859-60.....	2,350,822
1852-53.....	2,201,110	1860-61.....	2,155,702
1853-54.....	2,534,770	1861-62.....	2,893,666
1854-55.....	2,124,404	1862-63.....	4,069,520
1855-56.....	2,489,502	1863-64.....	3,261,105
1856-57.....	2,818,468		

(*Cincinnati Price Current.*)

ART. XI.—DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—RAILROADS OF TENNESSEE.

Having recently travelled through the State of Tennessee, we can speak advisedly of the rapid progress which is being made in re-opening and equipping her important railroad works. We had the pleasure of meeting Colonel Tait, President of the Memphis and Charleston Road, and was glad to learn from him that the losses of the road were much less than anticipated, and that in a short time it would be restored to the full vigor which characterized its operations before the war. Substantial bridges and work-shops are being constructed and locomotives and cars procured.

Having no recent reports of any of the Tennessee roads, we shall draw upon previous ones in order to show their great importance:

Comparative Statement of Receipts, Memphis and Charleston Railroad, for past three years:

Receipts.	1859.	1860.	1861.
From Passengers.....	\$751,923.01	\$975,259.33	\$1,022,595.48
" Freight.....	509,991.66	582,553.26	729,875.93
" Mail.....	55,175.00	55,177.00	54,064.58
" Ex. and rents.....	13,722.73	22,089.08	34,576.61
Total.....	\$1,330,812.40	\$1,635,076.67	\$1,841,112.60

MEMPHIS AND OHIO RAILROAD.—This road forms an important link in the chain of railroads connecting Louisville, Memphis and New Orleans, extending from Memphis to Paris, Tenn., a distance of 130 miles. The road was completed 57 miles to Brownsville, in 1855; to Humboldt, 82 miles, in April, 1859, and to Paris, the northern terminus, May 11, 1860. In consequence of the Clarksville road not having been completed, direct communication was not made with Louisville until April 15, 1861, on which day the first through train left Memphis, and arrived in Louisville in twenty hours. The time has since been reduced to eighteen hours, and on the completion of the Tennessee river bridge, we are assured it will be still further reduced. The distance from Memphis to Louisville is—Memphis and Ohio Road, 130 miles; Memphis, Clarksville and Louisville Road, 83 miles, and Louisville and Nashville Road, 167 miles—total, 380 miles. The short time that has elapsed since the opening of this route, and the partial prostration of trade in consequence of the war, precludes the formation of a correct estimate of the immense business that will be transacted

by this road when peace shall again be restored. For the present we can only refer to the movements of freight over the road, as indicated by the statements elsewhere contained in this report. Each year's earnings of the road have evinced a decided increase over the preceding year. In 1860 the receipts exhibited an increase over 1859 of 67 per cent.; and in 1861 over 1860 of 20 per cent., of which \$59,061 was from passengers, \$29,831 from freights, and \$2,691 from mails—total increase, \$91,586. The total receipts of the past year embraced \$362,595.33; operating expenses same time, \$190,764.78; leaving as nett earnings, \$171,840.55. The road, as we are informed, has cost about \$3,300,000, including buildings and equipments. The financial condition of the road may be briefly stated: Tennessee bonds, maturing in 1895, '96, '97, '98, and '99, \$1,493,000; Company 6 per cent. bonds, due in 1866, \$97,000; Company income bonds, 10 per cent, due in 1870, \$432,000—total funded debt, \$2,022,000; floating debt, \$273,000—total liabilities, \$2,300,000. It will thus be seen that the cost of building and equipping the road exceeds the total liabilities of the Company by 1,000,000. Annexed we give a

Comparative Statement of Receipts, Memphis and Ohio Railroads, for past three years.

Receipts.	1859.	1860.	1861.
From Passengers.....	\$71,574.55	\$130,285.90	\$189,347.55
" Freight.....	76,976.85	136,815.84	166,647.78
" Mail.....	1,273.40	3,908.58	6,600.00
" Express.....	160.40
Total.....	\$149,985.30	\$271,010.32	\$362,595.33

MISSISSIPPI AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.—The completion of this important artery of commerce and travel opens up direct railroad communication with Granada, Canton, Jackson and New Orleans, and reduces the time between Memphis and the latter point to twenty-three hours. Twenty miles of the road on the southern end, from Oakland to Granada, was completed on the 3d of July, and the first through train left this city on the following day. The future prospects of the road are certainly of the most flattering character. Passing through one of the richest Cotton-growing regions of the South, and forming, as it does, an important part of the great Northern and Southern line of travel, its future operations can scarcely be otherwise than profitable to the public and remunerative to stockholders and others interested. The road is 99 miles in length, and is, for the most part, well built. There are thirteen "Howe Truss" bridges, and seven wrought iron, in spans of 25 and 30 feet, resting on solid and substantial approaches. The pressure of the times has prevented the erection of permanent depot buildings and machine shops at Memphis, which was wisely deferred until the track should be completed; yet this company does all its own repairs in temporary shops, attached to which is a car manufactory, which is turning out all the cars required by the road—some of them the finest to be found in the country. The business of the road during the past year, 1861, circumstances considered, has been excellent, the amount of freight shipped from the city especially showing a marked increase. The earnings of the road, in its various departments, will be seen from the following:

Comparative Statement of Receipts, Mississippi and Tennessee Railroad, for past three years.

Receipts.	1859.	1860.	1861.
From Passengers.....	\$ 66,636.41	\$ 74,528.06	\$ 78,055.62
" Freight.....	104,704.76	140,523.79	134,650.60
" Mail.....	747.33	1,547.33	5,737.50
" Express rents, &c..	4,425.00	4,425.00	1,890.02
Total.....	\$176,513.50	\$221,026.18	\$220,333.74

2.—RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES, NUMBER OF COMPANIES IN EACH STATE, WITH THEIR MILEAGE AND COST, IN THE YEARS 1850, 1860, AND 1864.*

STATES.	NUMBER OF COMPANIES.	MILEAGE.			COST OF PROPERTY.		
		1850	1860	1864	1850	1860	1864
Maine.....	13	245.2	471.9	505.1	\$7,000,000	\$16,055,000	\$12,669,000
New Hampshire.....	17	467.7	661.0	680.3	14,660,000	23,086,000	22,459,000
Vermont.....	9	290.0	554.0	567.1	11,266,000	23,856,000	23,852,000
Massachusetts.....	49	1035.1	1264.2	1285.0	47,719,000	58,642,000	59,051,000
Rhode Island.....	3	68.0	107.9	135.2	2,918,000	4,405,000	4,538,000
Connecticut.....	13	401.9	600.5	629.0	13,735,000	21,548,000	23,014,000
<i>N. E. States.....</i>	<i>104</i>	<i>2503.0</i>	<i>3659.3</i>	<i>3792.3</i>	<i>\$97,298,000</i>	<i>\$147,392,000</i>	<i>\$149,663,000</i>
New York.....	42	1360.8	2682.3	2820.9	\$62,977,000	\$128,915,000	\$135,887,000
New Jersey.....	26	206.4	560.8	664.5	9,349,000	23,966,000	38,892,000
Pennsylvania.....	85	1240.1	2593.4	3359.8	44,543,000	144,744,000	170,080,000
Delaware.....	4	39.2	126.8	126.8	2,252,000	4,352,000	4,500,000
Maryland & Dis. of Col.	8	259.0	386.3	405.3	12,241,000	21,519,000	22,737,000
<i>Middle Atlantic States.....</i>	<i>165</i>	<i>3103.5</i>	<i>6354.1</i>	<i>7580.8</i>	<i>\$131,392,000</i>	<i>\$330,496,000</i>	<i>\$372,096,000</i>
West Virginia.....	1	97.0	352.5	369.5	\$4,795,000	\$21,656,000	\$21,935,000
Kentucky.....	12	78.2	593.7	566.8	1,890,000	18,046,000	21,062,000
Ohio.....	30	575.3	2945.5	3910.9	10,785,000	109,601,000	117,583,000
Michigan.....	10	342.0	779.2	698.2	8,846,000	30,528,000	35,091,000
Indiana.....	19	228.0	2163.2	2195.2	4,043,000	71,087,000	71,296,000
Illinois.....	26	110.5	2799.2	3156.2	2,441,000	102,545,000	120,417,000
Wisconsin.....	9	20.0	904.6	1010.2	612,000	33,458,000	37,165,000
Minnesota.....	4	157.0	8,850,000
Iowa.....	10	654.8	804.8	18,623,000	25,496,000
Kansas.....	1	40.0	1,400,000
Missouri.....	7	817.5	924.8	42,342,000	50,046,000
Arkansas.....	1	38.5	38.5	1,155,000	1,155,000
Tennessee.....	14	1252.6	1295.7	30,995,000	38,538,000
<i>Interior States.....</i>	<i>144</i>	<i>1451.0</i>	<i>13,241.3</i>	<i>14,758.8</i>	<i>\$38,352,000</i>	<i>\$479,947,000</i>	<i>\$540,079,000</i>
Virginia.....	17	384.2	1378.7	1378.7	\$7,866,000	\$42,905,000	\$42,905,000
North Carolina.....	10	282.5	937.4	983.9	8,707,000	17,560,000	19,120,000
South Carolina.....	10	289.0	973.0	973.0	7,526,000	22,053,000	22,053,000
Georgia.....	17	643.0	1419.8	1419.8	13,272,000	29,389,000	29,389,000
Florida.....	6	21.0	401.5	405.5	210,000	8,628,000	8,628,000
Alabama.....	10	182.5	742.7	804.7	1,946,000	17,598,000	18,161,000
Mississippi.....	5	75.0	862.5	862.5	2,020,000	24,458,000	24,632,000
Louisiana.....	9	79.5	834.8	834.8	1,840,000	12,021,000	12,021,000
Texas.....	8	306.5	451.5	11,032,000	16,229,000
<i>Southern States.....</i>	<i>92</i>	<i>1956.7</i>	<i>7356.9</i>	<i>7610.4</i>	<i>\$37,887,000</i>	<i>\$185,644,000</i>	<i>\$193,198,000</i>
California.....	4	22.5	147.3	\$1,600,000	\$7,900,000
Oregon.....	2	19.5	700,000
<i>Pacific States.....</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>.....</i>	<i>22.5</i>	<i>166.8</i>	<i>.....</i>	<i>\$1,600,000</i>	<i>\$8,600,000</i>
North-Eastern States...	104	2508.0	3659.8	3792.3	\$97,298,000	\$147,392,000	\$149,653,000
Middle Atlantic States..	165	3103.0	6354.1	7580.8	131,392,000	330,496,000	372,096,000
Interior States.....	144	1451.0	13,241.3	14,758.8	38,352,000	479,947,000	540,079,000
Southern States.....	92	1956.7	7356.9	7610.5	37,887,000	185,644,000	193,198,000
Pacific States.....	5	22.5	135.8	1,600,000	8,600,000
TOTAL United States.	510	9020.7	30,634.6	33,908.6	\$299,924,000	\$1,145,079,000	\$1,264,328,000

* The reports on Southern roads for 1864 not included.

MEMPHIS AND LITTLE ROCK RAILROAD.—The prospects of this road are of a very flattering and gratifying character. Several months since (1862) the affairs of the Company passed into the hands of a new administration, under whose auspices the work of completion is being prosecuted with vigor. From official sources we learn that track-laying is progressing on both ends, that the grading is completed from Duvall's Bluff, on White river, to Little Rock, and some 18 miles of track laid down since April last, with the prospect of completion by the 1st November. Prior to this date it is expected that the bridge crossing the St. Francis will be completed, when we shall be in direct and uninterrupted communication with Little Rock. The heaviest portion of the grading of the intervening space of forty-five miles between Madison and Duvall's Bluff, has been performed; the iron for the entire road purchased, and a sufficient amount delivered to complete the road from White river to Little Rock, as well as some fifteen miles on the second or middle division, leaving but thirty miles of iron for future delivery.

3.—RAILROAD PROGRESS IN TEXAS.

We have no means of ascertaining what progress was made upon the railroads of Texas during the war, but suppose little or none. We shall be happy to receive information from parties in that State. The latest Report was in 1860, and we are indebted for it to Mr. Richardson. The liberal aid in lands and money which Texas holds out to railroad enterprise must produce great results.

RAILROAD PROGRESS IN TEXAS.

The following twelve companies, are, we believe, the only ones by whom any work has been done, and the table below shows correctly the amount of work done by each up to October 1st, 1859:

	COM.	GRAD.	CONT.
1. Galveston, Houston and Henderson Railroad,	42½	..	6½
2. Buffalo Bayou, Brazos and Colorado	66	10	5
3. Houston Tap and Brazoria	36½	23½	..
4. Houston and Texas Central	75	8	5
5. Washington County	11
6. San Antonio and Mexican Gulf	5	20	..
7. Southern Pacific	27½
8. Memphis, El Paso and Pacific	..	35	..
9. New Orleans and Texas	10	20	76
10. Eastern Texas Road, 15 or 20 miles.			
11. Indianola road, amount graded not known.			
12. Aransas road, 5 miles embankment and grade.			

Thus we have a total of 272½ miles completed, over 130 or 140 miles graded, and 85 miles more under contract.

The contract to complete the 6½ miles from the city of Galveston to connect with the road at Virginia Point, requires that it shall be completed early in December. The Bridge over the Bay is nearly completed, and the grading of about 4½ miles from the city to the bridge is also nearly done and ready for the ties and iron. The contracts require that the entire road shall be completed and the cars running from Galveston to Houston over the Bay, by the first of January next.

The grading on the Aransas road consists chiefly of an embankment from the main channel through the Bay to the mainland. This embankment has been thrown up by Mr. Hawley, who is now at work there with his dredge-boat.

Work was commenced on the Eastern Texas road by the former company under its former name, some ten miles north of Beaumont. We are informed that the present company commenced grading some fifteen or twenty miles south of Beaumont, with a view to make Sabine Pass the terminus, and expect to have twenty-five miles graded by the meeting of the next Legislature. Col. Stamps

is now superintending the grading. The \$50,000 required by the last Legislature, has not been deposited.

The Washington County road is now being graded on the west of the Brazos, and we are assured, will soon be completed to Brenham. The company are taking measures to have a substantial bridge constructed over the Brazos.

ART. XI.—DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—MANUFACTURING INTERESTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

As is usual, just before the meeting of a new Congress, the Government Printing Office is pouring out a large number of public documents; but the most interesting and important is a quarto volume of seven hundred and fifty pages, compiled from the census returns of 1860, on the manufactures of the United States. Soon after Mr. Harlan entered upon his duties as Secretary of the Interior, he re-organized the affairs of the Census Office, and the volume alluded to is the first issued under the new arrangement. The introduction to the work, prepared under the immediate supervision of the Commissioner of the Land Office (Hon. J. M. Edmunds), contains a marvelous amount of valuable information, while the statistical tables, arranged and corrected by Mr. J. J. Wilson, the chief clerk in charge of the office, contains a number of features which will command general approbation. In looking over the immense number of facts here collected, we have picked out a few items which may interest our readers, and are as follows:

Manufactures.	Total value for 1860.	Manufactures.	Total value for 1860.
Boots and shoes.....	\$91,889,298	Iron.....	78,175,332
Bread and crackers.....	16,980,012	Pig iron.....	20,870,120
Brick.....	10,253,734	Jewelry.....	10,415,811
Carpentering.....	12,646,392	Leather.....	75,697,747
Carriages.....	26,848,905	Lumber.....	104,928,342
Clothing.....	89,000,000	Steam engines.....	46,757,486
Coal.....	20,243,637	Marble and stone work..	16,244,044
Cotton goods.....	107,337,783	Paper.....	21,216,802
Fisheries.....	14,284,405	Printing and publishing..	31,063,898
Flour and meal.....	248,580,365	Provisions.....	31,986,433
Furniture.....	25,632,293	Soap and candles.....	18,464,574
Gold mining.....	47,163,170	Sugar refining.....	42,143,234
Hardware.....	10,903,106	Woolen goods.....	60,685,190

2.—THE GREAT SOUTHERN PIANO MANUFACTORY.

We clip from the *New York World* of 21st December, the following in regard to Piano Fortes Manufacture in the United States, showing the success and extent of the celebrated establishment of Knabe & Co., of Baltimore, Md., whose instruments we cheerfully recommend to our readers:

"Until about forty years ago, Americans were content to purchase at large prices very indifferent piano-fortes from England, France and Germany. These instruments, never very good in themselves, were utterly unable to stand the excessive variation of our climate, and the super-heating of our parlors generally, so that after two or three years they became mere rattle traps, fit only for kindling-wood. One of the first houses to assert that America could manufacture for herself, and whose efforts were successful in diminishing the importation of pianos, was that of Knabe and Co., who commenced business over thirty years ago in the Monumental City of Baltimore. Their beginnings were humble, for large investments in an untried branch of trade, which must at once come into competition with the best manufactures of Europe, was then a thing unheard of, since, besides the competition to be overcome, there was a wide-

spread, deeply-rooted prejudice in favor of the foreign article to be encountered. The excellence of the Knabe piano, however, gradually attracted attention, and it began to command a market elsewhere than in Baltimore. Pianos made in the Eastern States also began to claim attention, and the fact came to be realized that instruments worthy of that name could be made in America, and that it was worse than folly to import an article at a high price, which could be furnished at home better in quality, and at about two thirds the cost.

"Under these favorable circumstances, the house of Knabe gathered strength and made headway, until to-day their manufactory is one of the largest in the world, and their business extends all over the United States, South America, the West Indies, and even to Europe.

"This house is the only rival of the few great piano establishments of the Eastern and Northern States, and the Knabe instruments are running a race in popularity, and successfully competing in the North and East with the best pianos made there. The enterprise of the firm is noteworthy.

"The present capacity of their manufactory enables them to turn out thirty-five pianos per week; but the success of their agency in New York, carried on by J. Bauer & Co., has so greatly increased the demand for their instruments, that they have been compelled to erect a new wing to their building on Eutaw and West streets, Baltimore, which, with the lumber-yard attached, occupies two entire blocks. This extensive manufactory is five stories high, and with the new wing attached, will present a frontage of four hundred and thirty-six feet, with a depth on all the floors of the building of forty feet. We doubt if there is a piano factory in the world of much larger dimensions. All the modern mechanical aids to labor are contained therein; their beautiful engine turns a hundred wheels, and moves a score of saws; the motive-power, steam, warms the entire building, and a number of rare and costly machines, of extraordinary power and unique invention, are in constant operation to produce the beautiful specimens of workmanship which the Knabe pianos exhibit.

"The pianos of Knabe and Co. are sterling instruments, thoroughly made of first-class and long-seasoned materials, so that their powers of endurance may be entirely relied upon. They are not turned out rapidly with a view only to their sale, but the makers expect that each piano shall be an advertisement, of many years' standing, of the sterling excellence of their work.

"There are but few makers of grand pianos in the country, and in this class of instruments the Knabe acknowledges no superior. Their new scale has produced an instrument of noble qualities. The tone is large and sonorous, brilliant and sympathetic, round and bell-like, and its power of singing or sustaining the sound is not exceeded in any instrument now made. The touch is firm, yet elastic; light, yet powerful, meeting every want of the player. It is an instrument of surpassing beauty, grandeur and richness—one that could not fail to inspire a good player with exquisite thoughts.

"The new squares are equally marked in their general excellence. The popular weakness seems now to be in favor of a great body of tone. This is not in accordance with correct taste. The Knabe square piano has plenty of tone, but is of a refined and beautiful character, sympathetic and brilliant, clear and equal in all its registers, and its singing quality is but little less than that of their grand. In point of touch it is all that could be desired, while in finish and exterior appearance the workmanship is perfect. The purchaser of a Knabe square piano may rest assured that he possesses one of the finest instruments in the world.

"The uprights are the best of their class now made in the United States. The tone is sweet and silvery, rich and sentimental, and possesses far more power than could be expected from instruments of that class. They stand well in time; their small, compact form is very convenient, the cases elegant, and they are in every way an admirable instrument."

ART. XII.—MISCELLANY.

1.—SOUTHERN FACTS AND FIGURES.

Among the associations recently formed for the development of the South is one at Washington City, under the presidency of Alex. W. Randall. This association puts forth the following facts :

The economists of the North, who have paid but little attention to this question, will be astonished at the immense productions of those States in 1860, as shown by the eighth census reports.

ALABAMA.

Alabama has under cultivation 6,385,724 acres of land, and produced :

Cotton, bales.....	989,955
Corn, bushels.....	83,226,282
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	5,439,917
Live stock, value.....	\$43,411,611
Slaughtered animals, value.....	\$10,000,000
Butter, pounds.....	6,028,478

GEORGIA.

Georgia has 8,662,758 acres of cultivated lands.

Cotton, bales.....	702,850
Corn, bushels.....	30,776,293
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	6,658,541
Live stock, value.....	\$38,372,734

Of land purchased of the Government by individuals, not under cultivation, it had 18,587,732 acres.

FLORIDA.

Acres, cultivated.....	654,213
Acres uncultivated (purchased).....	2,266,015
Cotton, bales.....	65,753
Corn, bushels.....	2,835,391
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	1,129,759
Live stock, value.....	\$5,553,356

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Acres, cultivated.....	4,573,000
Cotton, bales.....	353,412
Corn, bushels.....	15,065,606
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	4,175,688
Live stock, value.....	\$23,934,463

TEXAS.

Acres under cultivation.....	2,650,781
Acres uncultivated.....	22,693,247
Cotton, bales.....	431,463
Corn, bushels.....	16,500,702
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	1,129,759
Live stock, value.....	\$42,825,447

LOUISIANA.

Acres under cultivation.....	2,707,108
Acres uncultivated.....	6,291,468
Cotton, bales.....	777,738
Corn, bushels.....	16,853,788
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	2,066,981
Live stock, value.....	\$24,546,940

MISSISSIPPI.

Acres under cultivation.....	5,065,755
Acres uncultivated.....	10,773,939
Cotton, bales.....	1,202,507
Corn, bushels.....	29,037,682
Sweet potatoes, bushels.....	4,563,873
Live stock, value.....	\$41,891,692

ARKANSAS.

Acres under cultivation.....	1,983,313
Acres uncultivated.....	7,590,393
Cotton, bales.....	367,338
Corn, bushels.....	17,823,588
Live stock, value.....	\$22,096,977

While Louisiana alone produced 221,761 hogsheads of sugar, and 13,439,772 gallons of molasses.

The cash value of purchased land in these States in 1860 was:

Alabama.....	\$175,824,622
Georgia.....	157,072,803
Florida.....	16,435,727
South Carolina.....	159,652,508
Texas.....	88,101,329
Louisiana.....	204,789,662
Mississippi.....	190,760,367
Arkansas.....	91,649,773

The cash value of negro slave property in the same States in 1860 was:

	Slaves.	Value.
Alabama.....	435,000.....	\$215,540,000
Georgia.....	462,198.....	230,099,000
Florida.....	61,745.....	30,872,500
South Carolina.....	402,406.....	201,203,000
Texas.....	182,566.....	91,283,000
Louisiana.....	331,726.....	165,863,000
Mississippi.....	436,631.....	218,315,500
Arkansas.....	111,115.....	55,557,000

The great question now is to provide for these States an efficient industrial system, to take the place of the one we have destroyed—to provide an industrial system which shall produce the amount of cotton, tobacco, rice, sugar and molasses raised in 1860, for the want of which a universal cry of distress ascends from the nations and all people. The cotton crop of the South in 1860 was 5,386,897 bales, while the entire crop of this year will be over-estimated at 1,000,000 bales. In 1860 the

Tobacco crop was.....	434,183,561 lbs.
Sugar.....	230,982 hhds.
Cane molasses.....	14,963,996 galls.
Sorghum molasses.....	6,698,181 galls.
Rice.....	187,167,082 lbs.

Not one fifth of this amount will be produced this year; and when it is considered that the cultivation of these products has been almost entirely abandoned for the last four years, the importance of immediate action upon the question cannot be overestimated.

A wise policy, inaugurated at once by the capitalists of the North and by the landowners of the South, will reproduce the crop of 1860 in three years. At the expiration of President Johnson's administration in 1869, this immense wealth, destroyed during the four years of war, may be restored, and the wants of the world again supplied. The people of the South have taken the initiative by offering to sell their lands at nominal prices, or lease their cultivated lands at reasonable rates for a term of years. They invite, in good faith, Northern and foreign emigration. Let Northern capitalists and the Northern people respond with like liberality, and the re-establishment of a healthy industrial condition will result in a prosperity unequalled in the history of any country.

2.—INDUSTRIAL MOVEMENTS IN LOUISIANA.

THE Attakapas country of Louisiana is the garden spot of the world, and we perceive that colonies of Germans have recently located there, and a colony from Maine is also said to have been established. The *Franklin Banner* thus describes the country:

"The soil of St. Mary is inexhaustible. Lands on the Teche below Franklin, in cultivation in cane and corn for ninety years, produced fine crops of cane in 1860, and have never been manured. All the lands in the parish are equally as fertile as these, some of them more so. An occasional plowing in of a crop of cow peas, grown among the corn, is all the manure these lands ever need. These lands, in ordinary crops from plant cane, yield a hogshead of sugar (1100 pounds net) and forty or fifty gallons of molasses to the acre. Some land has produced thirty-five hundred pounds of sugar to the acre. These lands produce sugar, cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo, corn, peas, potatoes, oats, rye, barley, all sorts of garden vegetables. Cabbages, turnips, beets, carrots, mustard, and some other vegetables, grow and come to perfection at mid winter. We have no snow, and rarely a freeze in the winter. Wild fruits of this country are dew berries, blackberries, mulberries, grapes, etc.,—cultivated fruits, oranges, lemons, limes, bananas, citrons, mespilus, or Japan plum, eight or ten kinds of domestic plums, six or more kinds of grapes, peaches, pears, quince—all of these do well in this climate. Apples grow here, but they are not good. It is the best fruit country in the United States.

"From the mouth of the Teche to New Iberia, on the south side of the bayou, the lands have not been overflowed since the memory of the oldest man in the country, and never will be.

"The health of the country is far superior to that of the States north of the Ohio river. Our fevers are light and very manageable, and we have but few diseases besides fevers and diarrheas. No women in the world are more healthy than those at Attakapas, and there are as many old men here as can be found in any northern latitude on the continent.

"Lands between the mouth of the Teche and the pine woods above Opelousas sell at from \$50 per acre down to \$5. Any one who has large or small means can purchase a home in Louisiana to suit circumstances."

The public lands of Louisiana are also considerable in amount, and are referred to by the *New Orleans Times* as follows:

"There are rising four million six hundred thousand acres of swamp lands that are awaiting reclamation that they may be brought to produce. There is plenty of room for emigrants. No state affords such excellent opportunities for the investment of labour and hard-handed industry. The total amount of land uncultivated in the State, land that is fitted by the treasures of alluvial soil for the plow, is over eight millions of acres. In spite of the present agricultural means of the State, there are but one-fourth of the lands that are under cultivation. But there is four years' work to bring these same uncultivated lands back to pro-

duction. At least one-third of this fourth of the Louisiana low lands have now, by the neglect that ensued during the war, lapsed into dead growths, that are awaiting the stroke of industry to be brought again to produce. This estimate will reduce the cultivated lands to one-sixth the number in the State."

3.—A FEDERAL OFFICER ON THE SOUTHERN SITUATION.

The following is extracted from a letter written by a Federal officer in Grenada, Miss.:

"Estimating but one-half bale of cotton to the acre, and the price next year but fifty cents per pound, without calculating the corn, potatoes and vegetables and the increase of stock, the family would realize the sum of \$2,250 the first year. In all probability the price of cotton will be far above that price, and possibly, not short of one dollar per pound, as not one bale of old cotton will be left in the Southern States by next crop. But to make a smaller estimate, and setting the price of cotton for next year at fifty cents, counting but one-half a bale to the acre, which is a very small aggregate, and is surpassed in almost all the creek bottom lands of Carroll, Tallahatchie, Yallobusha, in fact all the Northern counties of Mississippi, it would leave the family one thousand dollars clear, after having paid for the land and deducting the cost of the animals, farming implements and provisions for the year. Such advantages are offered to no settler in any of the Northern States or Territories.

"The prevailing impression that once the Federal garrisons are withdrawn, the lives and property of immigrants would be endangered, is absolutely erroneous. With the exception of a few bar-room brawlers, of which every small town both North and South has a few specimens, the people are not only well-disposed to the scheme, but are determined, if necessary, to protect emigrants in all their rights. No peaceable citizen, wherever he may come from, need fear the least interference. I consider it the duty of the Northern press to disabuse the mind of the people in this respect, not only as a means of throwing light on the subject, but in order to insure justice to the South, in removing a slander and calumny from a people which, as a mass, is at least deserving of the credit of bearing their misfortunes with manliness. To repulse the hand of the vanquished is unworthy of the conqueror. But to return to the subject of emigration, it would be well to notice the question of climate. The war has exploded the fallacy that none but negroes were capable of enduring the heat of the Southern cotton fields. Northern soldiers have been exposed to all the influences of the Southern climate, and their health has in no manner been affected any more than that of the native born soldiery of the South; furthermore, the work in the cotton field is not required to be done during the most intense heat of the day. Eight hours of intelligent and industrious labor—four early in the morning and four in the evening, is sufficient to keep the cotton in good order during the hot season."

4.—HOW TO INDUCE IMMIGRATION TO THE SOUTH.

Major Tochman, a well known Polish refugee in a letter to some gentlemen in Charleston, refers as follows to the subject of a Polish immigration to the South. Major Tochman would be a valuable man to secure in any such enterprise:

"There are at this time, between thirty and forty thousand Poles of this class in foreign lands of Europe and Asia, and they could easily be persuaded to adopt the South of these United States for their home; nay, I have at this moment, over two thousand Poles, and as many or more Swiss and Germans who would follow them, waiting only for some such arrangement with the Southern landholders, as would convince them that their labor might furnish to them the means for their support and for the payment of the consideration of their homesteads. Without some such arrangement that would show the possibility of their attaining these two objects, they would not venture to come to this country as agriculturists: for they lost all—their property having been confiscated by the Russian government; they cannot, then, pay cash for the land where they would

like to go, and their honor does not allow them to engage in covenants of chances that might place it beyond their power to comply with the stipulated terms. I know what the safety of the Southern States and the individual interest, of the Southern people require to retrieve their losses, political and material; and I know, better than any American, the dispositions of the Europeans—and this is the reason why I have been knocking where I thought the sound would be heard—suggesting and urging organizations of the Southern land companies, on a plan that would be acceptable to the Europeans, advantageous to the Southern land-owners and to their States, and that would outdo the plans of the Northern speculators, who entice and drive emigrants Northwest, where the climate does not allow them to work more than six (and in many places only four or five) months in the year. As nothing final has been done yet that would secure the attainment of these desirable objects, the South Carolinians, in whose behalf you have opened correspondence with me, could take the lead in this great scheme; and if they do so, by organizing a land company on some such principles as are practicable and would effect the desired end, I am ready to co-operate with them."

5.—THE NATIONAL FREEDMAN'S BUREAU.

General Howard whom we take to be an excellent gentleman personally, and from whom we received some recent courtesies in Washington, has evidently an immense machine upon his hands which, do what he may, must inevitably fall to pieces very soon. He says in a recent report, that to work this vast machine in 1866, the comfortable sum of *nearly eleven millions of dollars* will be required, which was about the amount of the whole national revenue some thirty or forty years ago:

"The work of restoration has progressed very rapidly, and it is probable that when war terminates little or no property will remain under control of the bureau. By this policy of restoration, the expectations of freedmen that land would be assigned them, have been disappointed, and difficulty has arisen thereby, but has been overcome with comparative ease. Much embarrassment and actual suffering has resulted by restoration of property in use. Much more will result from the curtailments of the bureau. About one five-hundredth of the entire amount of land of insurrectionary districts has ever been held, and had the plan of assigning it to freedmen been carried out, the Bureau would have been unable to furnish an acre, for former experience has shown, as a general rule, it is better to leave the price of labor to be regulated by the demand. Schools have been established, but hostility of white people to them is undisguised. Congress when it created the Bureau, made no appropriation to defray its expenses. It has, however, received funds from miscellaneous sources, to the amount of \$478,363. Deducting the amount held as retained bounties, \$115,236, and the balance on hand October 31, 1865, available to meet liabilities, \$313,796. The amount held as claimed bounties is merely held in trust for colored soldiers, or their families. The breaking up of the plantation system has necessarily left the sick with little or no medical provision. As soon as they earn money and become better versed than now, in ordinary means of self support, they will, doubtless, secure necessary aid. From information derived from various reports of military officers, inspectors and assistant commissioners, Gen. Howard arrives at the general conclusion that free labor, notwithstanding the sudden emancipation, and the thousands of causes of disturbances incident to the war, will prove successful. That the Freedmen's Bureau, or some substitute of it, of a national character, will have to be continued, and that the present organization of the Bureau with the understanding that it is not to be permanent, is as good as he could suggest, except as to the subject of the freedmen's court and the employment of civil agencies. Some general system of providing for the aged and infirm is necessary, and it would be well to devote funds raised during the war under the Treasury laws for the benefit of freedmen, to secure sites and buildings for school purposes in different States, and that joint companies, whose object shall be to aid the poor blacks and whites in rental purchase and the settlement of lands,

should be encouraged by the Government, and that the rights of the freedmen to rent and purchase real property should be guaranteed to them beyond question."

6.—ENDLESS EMPLOYMENT FOR THE FREEDMEN'S BUREAU.

The kindness of Uncle Sam has instituted for the Freedmen associations and regulations which he has not yet been inclined to vouchsafe to their free white brethren of American descent. We perceive that General Saxton, in South Carolina, is likely to have his hands full in all coming time, in looking after the social and moral character of the emancipated millions. He publishes a string of regulations, of which the following is an extract:

"Parties Authorized to Solemnize Marriages. 1. All ordained ministers of the Gospel are authorized to solemnize marriages.

"2. Such civil officers may solemnize marriages as are authorized by the State, provided the laws of their respective States are recognized as in force by the general government.

"*Dissolving Marriages, Appeals, &c.* 3. Marriage is a solemn covenant, made by the parties before God, and not to be broken till death. For crimes, however, in either party, and for peculiar prudential reasons, growing out of the injustice of slavery, as hereinafter specified and provided, marriages may be dissolved.

"4. Religious societies and churches, fully recognized by their respective denominations, shall have power to dissolve marriages of the freedmen for the following causes:

"First—For moral causes, to wit: adultery, fornication, proved against either party.

"Second—For prudential reasons, as provided for in section 4, rules 10 and 11.

"5. Parties dissatisfied with the decision of the society or church, in authorizing or forbidding married persons to dissolve their marriage relations, may appeal from such decision to the minister or pastor of such society or church, whose duty it shall be to appoint a committee of five disinterested male persons, the same not having acted with the society or church appealed from. The party appointing such committee shall preside over their proceedings, and report their decision in the case to the society or church whose action had been appealed from. Such decision will be accepted as final, and the action of all the parties must conform thereto.

"6. If, however, the society or church whose decision is appealed from, have no minister or pastor, then the appeal may be made to any other society or church organized as above specified, willing to give a hearing to the party so appealing. The decision of such society or church thus appealed to shall be received as final, and the party appealing will be required to comply therewith.

"7. Every freedman having only one name is required to assume a "title" or family name. It may be the name of a former owner or any other person. When once assumed it must always thereafter be used, and no other.

"8. Every minister shall furnish each party married by him with an authenticated certificate of marriage for which the party shall pay him the sum of one dollar.

"9. Every minister solemnizing or confirming a marriage will make return of the same with the least possible delay to the office of the Recording District, which will be hereafter formed and announced by the Assistant Commissioner of the Bureau.

"10. Ordained ministers are authorized to give certificates to parties married since obtaining their freedom, and having no official evidence of the same, provided such parties furnish satisfactory evidence of their marriage. Returns of all such certificates for public record will be required, as in all other cases.

"11. All civil officers are respectfully requested to make returns, agreeably to the above rule, of all marriages solemnized by them, unless the laws of the State direct their returns to be made otherwise."

EDITORIAL AND MISCELLANIES.

In a recent trip, which was made by the editor of the REVIEW, from the capital of South Carolina through the States of South and North Carolina and Virginia, he could not but be gratified with the rapid progress which is being made to repair the immense, and at first seemingly overwhelming and crushing, damages of the war. Though the railroad from *Columbia to Charleston* has only been restored to Winnsboro', he was assured by the President of the Company that there was every prospect of opening the entire route by the spring, including the construction of a bridge across the Catawba. The road from *Columbia to Charleston* is probably by this time opened, whilst that to Augusta is making such progress as the limited resources of the Company will afford. It is a great mistake which was made by Northern capitalists not to come forward immediately and afford the necessary facilities for the completion of these great works, so important in their bearings upon the national commerce. The through route from *Charlotte by Raleigh, Danville and Richmond* was in good condition, making fair time and with generally excellent cars and locomotives. The *Orange and Alexandria Railroad* to Washington City is in admirable trim.

Everywhere we found the people rallying from their recent discomfiture, and taking hold with true masculine grip of whatever might offer to restore their broken fortunes, and a spirit of enterprise was waking up in quarters which were least expected. Men who were reared to all the luxuries of fortune and life we found putting their shoulders to the wheel in the most rug-

ged and least inviting employments and exhibiting a willingness to toil unremittingly. There were few repinings. Brave and true men never waste time over the inevitable and the irretrievable. Having staked their all and lost upon the issue, they are prepared for all the exigencies. Even the tenderest women, alive to the situation, perform their cheerful part. With such a spirit, and with God's aid and a generous co-operation by the Government, the garden may smile again even for the present generation, dark though the prospect now, and terrible as may be the ordeal through which the country is first compelled to pass.

Richmond, though shattered by the conflict, and her magnificent business structures in ruins, exhibits activity and bustle. The hammer and the pickaxe, the spade and the trowel are at work, and whole rows of buildings are rising from their foundations, whilst others are projected for an early day. It was said that a great drawback to improvements resulted from the action of proprietors, who were unreasonable in their demands.

We found *Washington City* vastly altered since the quiet days of Pierce and Buchanan. The streets and hotels are crowded with new people, and in this respect very little of the old city is discerned. The population has undoubtedly doubled, and is largely without accommodation. The improvements have been but mere, unsubstantial, temporary tenements and shanties. Theatres, shows, circuses, bowling saloons and bar-rooms were multiplied. Shops exhibited more inviting fronts and larger stocks. The Capitol has become a most magnificent pile. The public

offices are densely thronged with clerks, and among them seemingly a thousand of the female sex. Property, rent, board, rooms, all at enormous figures!

Baltimore was at a stand-still during the war. Few, if any improvements were made, but the city will now revive, and may expect a large share in the future development of the country.

We passed over the *Baltimore and Ohio Railroad* going west, and, barring the discomfort of crossing the Ohio in a ferry boat at night, made the trip safely and in fair time to Cincinnati. Thence to *Louisville* by one of the splendid passenger steamers and over the rails of the Louisville and Nashville road, we set foot in a little over twenty-four hours in the streets of Nashville.

Who would recognize the *Nashville* of to-day. What a multitude of active, bustling, driving men and women, and with what strange faces and what a host of contrabands, now freedmen, what innumerable and unique cots and cabins, scarcely weather-proof, which line the approaches to the city on every road, and cluster around the railroad depots! What vast and formidable military works thrown up in every quarter, line within line, what thousands and tens of thousands of wagons and caissons and other paraphernalia of war! There must be twice the population of 1860, but can they be sustained and employed, and will they be made a part of the permanent population? Lots and houses are at fabulous prices; even country lands within 2 to 10 miles bring almost unparalleled rates, and are in great demand for residences, country seats and market farms.

Without doubt Nashville will be a considerable city in the future. She has unrivalled advantages for manufac-

tures. The health of the city will attract from every quarter. Thousands of Southern planters, unwilling to keep their families, though they work their estates in the densely populous regions of the freedmen, will fix homes in Nashville for comfort, quiet, health and education. This is our theory. At present the city is naturally in an unquiet state, and when we were there robberies and murders were so frequent as to cause a general panic. They were the result of the large number of persons thrown out of employment by the Government and left without means of support. The authorities having moved with spirit in the matter, order and law have in a good measure resumed their sway.

Take the cars for *Decatur*, passing over the battle-fields of Franklin and by Columbia. The road is miserably equipped. One of the worst, if not quite the worst, in the country. In eight hours we cross in a ferry boat by the side of the ruins of the magnificent bridge which once belted the Tennessee. It is to be replaced by an iron one now under contract. *Decatur* is a ruin. Proximate to the seat of war, it bore the brunt of both armies. Its streets are dug up in trenches, and made impassable by earthworks. Shanties abound. Some of the most miserable are crowded with freedmen. There are fair accommodations at one or two hotels, and having to delay a day or two to make railroad connections, we were well entertained at the house kept by Mr. Humphreys. Here we met a number of Northern men who are in search of Southern lands, and propose to cultivate cotton. They have note-books and guide-books and exchange information. They make close and nice calculations of cost, results and profits, and have all the details set down in their pocket-books. They

cipher out vast results. The field certainly is wide and the prospect is encouraging, but it strikes us these gentlemen are too self-confident and regard too little the experiences of others. They laugh to scorn the experiences of the old planters. They regard them as old fogies. Cotton can be cultivated on new rules and with Northern machinery. There are to be cultivators and buggy ploughs and cotton-pickers and cotton-thrashers and all that sort of thing. Well, all things are to become new perhaps, but it might be upon the safe side to hasten a little slowly. Let the gentlemen try their experiments, however.

The *Memphis and Charleston Railroad* takes us to Corinth. The rate of travel is slow and the road is improving every day under the vigorous superintendence of the President, Colonel Tait, whom we meet upon the cars. He is rebuilding bridges, establishing workshops, repairing locomotives, building cars and relaying the cross-ties, and doing it very much out of the income of the road. He represents its finances in excellent condition, and its savings from the war much larger than were expected.

We reach *Corinth* at 2 o'clock in the morning, and in the most indescribable confusion, and with the worst arrangements in the world, change cars on the way to Mobile. Trains run from that city to Columbus, Kentucky, but three times a week. They are densely crowded and with very little accommodations, but improvement and daily trains are promised at an early day. The business of the road is enormous.

Touch at *Columbus, Miss.*, which has sustained little damage by the war, and find the main street crowded with new shops, and a large country trade already opened.

Mobile has much of its old life, and

the old residents are back at their offices and homes. Great activity prevails, and cotton is coming in by steamboat and by railroad, and the high prices of the staple, and the exhaustion of every kind of goods and supplies in the interior, creates a temporary prosperity. Can it last? That is the great question which the present winter and spring are to solve! The damage to the city by the great gunpowder explosion is less than we apprehended. Had the accident occurred higher up in town the loss would have been unparalleled.

Make the passage to New Orleans in an excellent steamer attached to a line which is nearly as good as that which was anterior to the war, but whose rates of travel are double. But this is very nearly the case wherever you travel at the South. Double price and less accommodation.

In New Orleans again! It is nearly four years since our departure was hurried by the ominous progress of Farragut's fleet. In that time, what trials and buffetings and wanderings; what hopes, fears and stern realities! Well, it is all past. It is idle to look back. The old residents have returned. The young men of the army who have survived are here, and all at work with vigor and energy. There are, too, hundreds and thousands of strange faces. The levee is crowded with steamers and ships and merchandise and busy men, and the shops are filled with goods. Chartres street and Canal street make a marvelous display of beautiful women. The newspapers publish triple and quadruple sheets of advertisements, and everybody seems to have his hands full. Still it does not equal the New Orleans of former times, and the full restoration of the city must be afar off, if it ever comes. From this point we shall have other

notes to make for our next number, and shall in a few weeks return to Washington City, to remain, perhaps, the rest of the winter.

The observations which follow have a necessary reference to our trip:

1. It is too soon, at the date of our writing, to form an accurate opinion as to what will be the result of the labor question, but the general expectation is unfavorable. The negroes are very slow in coming forward to contract. They have unreasonable ideas. They flock to the villages and towns, in preference to the estates. Few contracts have yet been made. Perhaps, however, there will be a change in the next two or three weeks. We sincerely hope so. The pressure of want may bring them, and doubtless will bring them, to terms.

2. We find everywhere a determination to act with fairness and humanity and kindness towards the unfortunate race, now left to their own resources, and it will be no fault of the planters if they are not placed in a condition of comfort and enjoyment.

3. Though there are immense quantities of land upon the market, embracing some of the best estates in the country, which can be bought or leased at low rates, no very considerable number of capitalists or proprietors have been attracted from the Northern and Western States. The number of land sales is comparatively few. The tide of immigration has not set in. There has been little influx of capital or labor; yet the country invites them both.

4. There is no sentiment of hostility remaining in the country. The people are satisfied with the experiment. They made it fearlessly, honestly, and it failed. They would be less than men not to have many regrets and sorrows, pride in their achievements, in their valor, in their great names.

General Grant has paid a tribute to these. They have the recollections of injuries, of violence, inseparable perhaps from the war, and the recollections will perhaps take a generation to wear off. Yet they have resumed their citizenship of the United States, and will perform all the duties which that involves, quietly, soberly, orderly, without ostentation or parade, and if the Federal authorities and the people of the North will act with a liberal and enlarged spirit, and with the generosity which the conqueror can well afford, the South may yet be restored and a great future open upon it. *God grant that it may be so!*

OUR BOOK TABLE.

We recognize many familiar names on the title-pages of the volumes kindly furnished us this month, but some, highly esteemed in days of yore, are still missing.

From Harper and Brothers we have received—

1. *Richard Cobden, His Political Career and Public Services. A Biography* by John McGilchrist. Illustrated.

This is a superb specimen of the excellence to which these eminent publishers have attained in typographical execution, and it is high commendation of the text, when we pronounce it worthy of the mechanical skill bestowed upon it. The life of Richard Cobden illustrates convincingly what earnestness and fixedness of purpose will accomplish, when united, as in his case, with thorough conviction of the worthiness of its object. His career was pre-eminently a success. Rescuing from theoretical inertness some of the mightiest principles of economic science, he achieved for them a practical development fruitful in results, which amply rewarded him for the ceaseless energy

and the self-sacrificing devotion he had given to their accomplishment.

Mr. McGilchrist has by a judicious and skillful selection of extracts from some of Mr. Cobden's speeches given to his work many of the peculiarities of an Autobiography, connecting his citations with graceful narration and depicting the closing scenes of his subject's career, with a simple, touching eloquence full of tenderness and pathos.

We have not always agreed with Mr. Cobden; but in the language of his noble Eulogist, the Premier, (now, too, gathered to his fathers,) "No man however strongly he may have differed from Mr. Cobden, * * * could have come into communication with him, without carrying away the strongest personal esteem and regard for the man with whom he differed."

In the three hundred pages of this little volume our readers will find much to instruct and entertain them; we advise them to procure and read it, and feel assured they will thank us for the suggestion.

2. *Social Life of the Chinese*, by Rev. Justus Doolittle, 2 volumes. Illustrated.

Christianity, like Commerce, is an aggressive agent of civilization, and, of these the first is perhaps the most resolute. The restlessness of Trade, the never-satisfied desire for new markets, and more extended fields of enterprise, has done much to disclose the hidden mysteries of Eastern systems; but the perseverance of the Missionary, his sublime self-abnegation and disregard of personal danger, and the social intimacy which is a consequence of his labors, has done more.

The volumes before us constitute an important addition to the valuable contributions on this and kindred subjects which have enriched the literature of the past twenty years; and will take

their place, with Livingston, and the magnificent chronicles of the Japan Expedition. The work is elaborate, and so far as fourteen years of close and searching observation—confined and restricted only by the jealousy and exclusiveness of the people—could extend; is exhaustive as to the "Religious, Governmental, Educational and business customs and opinions" of the Chinese.

Our esteemed contemporary I. Smith Homans, Esq., of the *Banker's Magazine*, has for many years made the publication of works on Finance a speciality. We thank him for the following:

1. *History of the Bank of England*, its times and traditions from 1694 to 1844, by John Francis. American Edition, with notes, additions and appendix, including statistics to the close of the year 1861, &c., by I. Smith Homans.

The "Old Lady of Threadneedle Street" has a cosmopolitan fame and reputation, and the authors of the work before us, could not have been more worthily employed than in collecting and preserving its records and traditions. Incidentally and necessarily the volume in review comprises not only a history of this mammoth institution, but of British and Continental Banking in general, and especially of English finance. The notes are copious and supply a fund of valuable information, and a calendar of events both apposite and reliable.

Peculiarly interesting, however, in the present monetary condition of this country, are those chapters relating the history of the Bank from the 27th of February, 1797—when under authority of an order in council, she closed her nearly exhausted coffers—until May the 1st, 1821, when anticipating by a twelvemonth, the provisions of Mr. Peel's Currency Bill, the ring of metal

again filled her halls with music. We commend these and the succeeding chapters touching the effects of resumption to those who *think*, without comment. The marked diversity of opinion in leading men both in and out of Parliament, the display of talent and ability, and the "muddle" in which this talent and ability was involved; the seeming prosperity which at first sustained the arguments of one party, and the terrible collapse that justified the foreboding of the other; all this is instructive, and may perhaps teach us the management of the problem now awaiting our solution.

We are always pleased when we find works like this on the book-shelves and tables of our merchants, and the effect is heightened when a well-thumbed appearance attests that they are more for use than ornament.

2. *Merchant's and Banker's Almanac*, 1866.

An invaluable book of reference, containing alphabetical lists of all the Banks, National and State, with the names of their principal officers and their New York correspondents, a list of over one thousand private Bankers in the United States and the Canadas, a complete catalogue of British, Continental and Eastern Banks and Bankers with their agencies and correspondents, all forming a handsome volume of about two hundred pages, abounding in statistics and handsomely illustrated with views of the Paris Bourse and the new Stock Exchange, New York.

3. *Acts of Congress relating to Loans and the Currency.*

4. *Supreme Court Decisions, on Taxation of Bank Stocks by States and Cities.*

These are admirable repositories of useful information on matters of popular interest. The first is an epitome of facts relating to the national debt, which constitute a history, brief, but

comprehensive, of the financial measures found necessary in the recent struggle.

SHELDON & COMPANY furnish:

1. *Marian Rooke, or the Quest for Fortune*, by Henry D. Sedley.

A spirited border tale, well told and abounding in incident and adventure,—a trip across the plains; the gold-seeker's usual ups and downs, in that wonderful land far away on the shores of the Pacific, his toils, his hopes, his disappointments, a fine stroke of financiering by a "*most delicious, whole-sale, scoundrel*," a mystery or two comfortably elucidated, a heart disease finally cured,—these are the elements out of which our author has evolved a pleasant entertainment for these long winter evenings.

2. *Washington*, being volume viii. of Jacob Abbott's series on American History. Illustrated.

One of the best of this popular series, and on a subject which can never become threadbare.

3. *Stories of the Apostles*, by Caroline Hadley.

Designed for children, and a real success in this truly difficult field of authorship.

4. *Stoddard's New Practical Arithmetic*, for Schools and Business Men.

A decided improvement on old methods and worthy of the science of which it treats.

To Messrs. Charles Scribner & Co. we are indebted for two valuable publications:

1. *Introduction to the Study of International Law*, by Theodore D. Woolsey, President of Yale College. 2d Edition, revised and enlarged.

The author, in his preface, very justly remarks that he writes to supply a "practical want of a compendious treatise," intended "for young men who are cultivating themselves by the study of

historical and political science." For this purpose it is admirably adapted, the style being clear and engaging, and as free from technicalities as the subject would permit. No man can consider himself well-informed and remain ignorant of those long-established principles which govern the intercourse of nations; and the excuse which has hitherto obtained that the compass of the subject excluded all but the professional student, cannot now prevail with so thorough an epitome within his reach.

The usefulness of this compend cannot be so circumscribed, however, as the author, in his modesty, indicates it should be. Not only the student, but the graduate at law, will thank him for his labors, and the former of these classes will appreciate the thoughtfulness that, in the appendices, points out the quarries where he may collect material to build on the solid foundation he has acquired from this treatise of Mr. Woolsey.

2. *Elements of Political Economy.* Will be noticed at length in our next issue.

D. Van Nostrand, 192 Broadway, sends us several interesting pamphlets, on the mineral wealth of the Pacific States and Territories, which may furnish the material for a paper on this subject in a future number of the REVIEW. We give the titles only for the present.

1. *The Silver Districts of Nevada.*

2. *Arizona, its Resources and Prospects.* By the Hon. Richard C. McCormick, Secretary of the Territory.

3. *Silver Mining Regions of Colorado.* By J. P. Whitney, of Boston.

4. *Mineral Resources of the Pacific States and Territories.* By the Hon. Wm. M. Stewart, U. S. Senator from Nevada.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE.

1. *The Farmer.* Elliott & Shields,

Richmond, Va. Vol. 1, No. 1. January 1, 1866.

We extend a hearty welcome to this new and ably conducted publication. The present issue is enriched with many and varied contributions of great practical interest. The leading article is a biographical sketch of Gen. W. H. Richardson, with his portrait and autograph, followed by an ample table of contents, comprising original papers and selections on Agriculture, Cattle Breeding, Horticulture, Immigration, and many other matters of prominent interest to the farmer.

2. *The Southern Cultivator.* Wm. N. White, Athens, Ga.

We recognize an old friend in this ever popular journal, celebrated throughout the South for the special excellence of its agricultural department. The proprietors, we believe, continued its publication uninterruptedly during the late conflict, an evidence that they possess that energy and perseverance which is, more than all, necessary in the present condition of the planting interests at the South.

3. *The Old Guard.* Vol. iv, No. 1. For January, 1866. C. Chauncey Burr, Editor.

This is a political magazine of the old school, but devotes a large space to the discussion of matters of literature, science and art, rendering it a welcome visitor to the family library, as well as a useful guide and instructor to those who have not learned to despise the purity and integrity of the earlier statesmanship of the Republic. The present issue is adorned with an excellent likeness of Gen. Robert E. Lee, with a sketch in which the writer attributes the universal esteem and respect with which Gen. Lee is regarded, to the deference and admiration which human nature, under all circumstances, pays to a really splendid character.

4. *The Banker's Magazine.*

We have spoken elsewhere of the success of Mr. Homans in works on banking and finance, and of his ability in this department. One of the most useful forms in which his labor develops itself is in this monthly record of financial events, and chronicle of improvements in the science of banking, everywhere.

The labor question still excites the most lively interest at the South. It is proposed in many quarters to inaugurate movements for the introduction of coolies from India, and attention is called to the fact that 150,000 have already been imported into the West Indies.

It is stated in Louisiana that negroes who refuse to contract will be sent by the Freedman's Bureau to the coast to work upon the levees. The Marshall, Texas, *Republican* complains that the negroes fill up all the towns in Texas, and line the roads; and the *Jefferson Bulletin* of the same State, says:

"From recent indications we are led to believe that a much larger surface will be planted in cotton, the ensuing spring, in Eastern Texas, than we had any right to expect even two months ago. We do not wish to be understood that there will be a crop planted at all approximating in extent to those of the years preceding the war. The general worthlessness of free negro field labor renders such a consumation impossible. Many of the largest plantations of the country will mainly grow up in weeds the coming year. As a general thing, the large planters, who formerly made the great crops, have either determined on doing little or nothing the coming year, or are awaiting the development of events, and seem disposed to stand aloof from the perils of hired negro labor.

On the other hand a letter is published from General Pillow, which is annexed, in hopeful strain, and the reports that have come into New Orleans (where this note is written,) since the

first of January, are in a measure more encouraging than they have been:

NASHVILLE, Tenn., Dec. 22, 1865.

Maj.-Gen. O. H. Howard, Commissioner, etc. etc., Washington—

It affords me the greatest pleasure to inform you that I have been successful beyond my most sanguine expectations in encouraging labor for all my plantations in Arkansas and Tennessee. I have already engaged about four hundred freedmen, and have full confidence in making a success of the work. I have given in all cases the freedmen a part of the crop of cotton, and I allow him land for the cultivation of vegetables and corn for his own use, without charge therefor. I would have engaged one thousand laborers, if I had needed that number. My brother, who adopted my plan of work, succeeded in engaging laborers for three places he is working. I have put one large plantation under white laborers from the North upon precisely the same terms I engaged freedmen. I feel anxious to try the system of white labor of that character for the plantation. Knowing the interest you feel in the success of the system of the freedmen, and feeling grateful for your kindness to me, I feel it to be a duty to communicate the result of my work thus far. With assurance of my personal regard and respect,

I am, General, very respectfully,

GIDEON J. PILLOW.

The *New Orleans Picayune* thus refers to a colony of Germans which has reached that city:

We learn that a company of one hundred Germans, who recently came here from New York with the view of seeking agricultural employment in the country, have made satisfactory engagements with planters in Tensas Parish, to which they proceeded on Saturday. We understand that the able bodied laborers are to receive \$150 for the first year's services, and to be provided with comfortable quarters, blankets, food, medicines and medical attendance. In the second year they are to have a share of the crop, in proportion to the ascertained value of their services. The third, it is anticipated that they will have saved sufficient to stock leasehold farms for their own account. This we believe is the first practical effort to employ white labor in the culture of Cotton in our State. If these immigrants enjoy ordinarily good health, they cannot fail, from their characteristic habits of industry and thrift, to save enough from their wages to lay the foundation of their future independence.